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ABSTRACT

This document consists of the six issues of this newsletter published during the two-year period summer 1994 to summer 1996. Intended for teachers of intensive English-as-a-Second-Language programs (IEPs), the issue contains the following articles: "The Inviolable Core of Intensive English Programs" (Fredricka L. Stoller); "Report from Baltimore: Ethical Issues for Intensive English Programs" (Judith M. Snoke); "Educational Tourism and the IEP: Incorporating Tourism Content" (Anita Kess); "Promoting Intercultural Friendship in the ESL Classroom" (Elisabeth Gareis); "Report on the University-Affiliated IEP National Database Project" (Rebecca Smith Murdock); "Evaluating Student Writing: One Scale or Two?" (Tay Leslie); "Campus Informants: Involving 'Experts' in IEP Acculturation Programs" (Andrew Macdonald, Gina Macdonald); "Predictable Problems: The Portuguese/Brazilian Student in the IEP Writing Program" (Raul Paiva); "Predictable Problems: The Russian Student in the IEP Program" (Paulina Bazin); "TESOL Accreditation of IEPs: Results of the Survey" (Bill Harshbarger); "IEP Administration: A Bibliography of Sources" (Mary F. Gawienowski); "Cultural Competencies in the EFL/ESL Classroom: A Report from TESOL '95" (Eli Hinkel); "Predictable Problems of Japanese Students: In-Group Belonging and Saving Face" (Kess); "Integrating Japanese Students into the ESL Classroom" (Ellen Kocher); "Proposed Intensive English Programs Employment Standards" (Len Fox); "Using 'True Friends' To Help Russian-Speaking ESL/EFL Students Learn English More Rapidly" (Bazin, Gina Macdonald); "What the World Needs Now: ESL Teachers and Technical Communication" (Emily Thrush); "Predictable Problems: Understanding French Student Reactions to ESL Programs" (Patrick Perrin, Lisbeth Philip); Ensuring French Student Participation in the ESL Classroom" (Ellen Kocher Plaisance); "Predictable Problems. Student Profiles: Chinese Students in the ESL Classroom" (Gareis, Nancy Heiges); "Experiencing Reality: University Class Observation for IEP Students" (Karen M. Heller, Gina Macdonald); "Designing and Implementing IEP Teaching Guides" (Elizabeth Byleen, Margaret Coffey, Susan Russell); "Classroom Exercises for Teaching Prepositions" (Plaisance); and "How Does Your Article Grow? From Idea to Publication" (Stephanie Vandrick). (MSE)

Intensive English Programs Newsletter

TESOL

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Intensive
English
Programs
Newsletter

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Volume 12, number 1, Summer 1994

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The Inviolable Core of Intensive English Programs

Fredricka L. Stoller,
Northern Arizona University

Can there be an inviolable core of intensive English programs (IEPs) given their diverse organizational and administrative configurations?[1] The absolute essentials, that is, the inviolable core, of an IEP can be extrapolated because despite the differences among IEPs, they do share a common mission: to guide "students to a level of mastery of the English language that will lead to eventual success in a degree or certificate program in an academic institution" (Staczek & Carkin, 1984, p. 294).

The question of an inviolable core brings to mind a number of incidents—some isolated and others on-going professional encounters—that have clarified for me the absolute essentials of IEP curricula, IEP status on campus, and IEP faculty.

Incident #1 and its relationship to the essentials of an IEP curriculum

The first incident occurred some years ago. I heard a bold knock on my office door and a symphony of familiar voices. I opened the door to an entire IEP class. The brave spokesperson said that they wanted to discuss a curricular change with me: "How about 25 hours of TOEFL preparation?" She asserted that the class did not need theme-based, integrated-skills courses— attempts to simulate real university course demands—or individualized reading labs, writing tutorials, video classes, computer labs, or cross-cultural communication classes. For them, a greatly expanded TOEFL preparation course would meet all their needs

I responded that while I appreciated the students' suggestion, it was the opinion of the IEP faculty (and the university at large) that the other curricular components were essential for their academic preparation. Yet I now wonder whether the essentials are really linked to our course offerings. It is unlikely that we have found the definitive answer to IEP curricula. But we have identified

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Notes from the Co-editors Gina & Andrew Macdonald

As the new co-editors of the *IEP Newsletter* we would like to emphasize announcements and exchanges, especially short entries (250 to 500 words) on effective teaching methods, problems of IEPs with tested solutions, discussions of teachers' rights and responsibilities, questions of unionization and so forth. Longer, more pedagogical articles of the sort published in the past (550-1000 words) are still welcome, but we expect to publish fewer of them. We are especially interested in promoting "flyting," the exchange of opinions and ideas in response to published articles, with several authors taking different positions on the same concern or controversy. We solicit your ideas and materials.

Deadlines for contributions to the *IEP Newsletter* are June 15, October 15, and February 15th (though convention information will be accepted down to the wire). Please send typed, double-spaced articles in hard copy as well as a high density disc in **MacWrite II, text-only** or **ASCII** format. Newsletter editors reserve the right to edit any material submitted for publication to enhance clarity or style and to shorten submissions to fit available space. However, authors will be consulted if changes are substantial.

A Word from the IEP Chair Jim Hamrick on critical issues

It's an exciting time to be involved with an Intensive English Program. As I write this, I have just completed the process of coordination of evaluations of over 259 proposals which were submitted to our Interest Section for TESOL '95. I was impressed by the scope and strength of the proposals -- evidence of the vitality of our programs. Having been involved with IEPs for over 12 years, I'm enthusiastic about the significant improvements in the quality of instruction we deliver to students, as well as improvements in the services we provide to our varied constituencies.

My enthusiasm is tempered by the fact that IEPs, as well as our Interest Section, face some critical issues in the months ahead. There are at least 3 areas that we need to address:

1) **Standards:** What are the defining characteristics of the services and instruction we provide to our students? How do we fit within the organizations and communities we serve? How can we better articulate a set of core standards for our programs? Should TESOL (or any other organization) accredit IEPs?

2) **Employment Conditions:** How can we improve working conditions in IEPs while maintaining the flexibility and dynamism of individual programs?

3) **Professional Associations:** Which associations (TESOL, NAFSA, AAIEP, UCIEP, etc.), including our IS, can most effectively promote the specific needs and concerns of the diverse organizations we call IEPs?

In the coming months, in preparation for TESOL '95 in Long Beach, we plan to make progress in dealing with these issues by establishing an on-going committee structure for our IS. As we work toward this end, I welcome your thoughts and suggestions regarding the composition and structure of these committees.

I look forward to working with you as we continue to grow in our profession and in our programs.

Report from Baltimore: Ethical Issues for Intensive English Programs

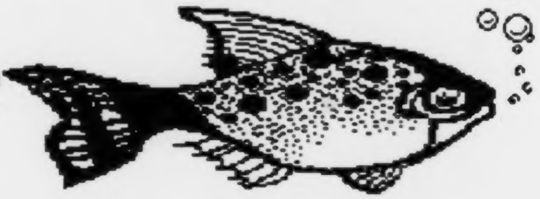
Judith M. Snoke, Director,
Virginia Tech Language Institute

Discussion at the opening IEP Section discussion group at the Baltimore TESOL Conference was remarkable for its liveliness and its tight focus on issues flowing from a single source: lack of autonomy and control of resources in a tight money environment. Many institutions use the IEP as a revenue source for other departments and programs. The sense of the meeting was that this tendency has increased over the last few years.

Within the IEP the consequences are many. First is the perennial problem of full-time versus part-time employment for staff. By keeping the staffing part-time, the parent organization maximizes "retained revenues". Second, the status of students and staff in the IEP is usually not equivalent to that of students and staff in an English Department. The consequences of this are two-fold: instructors may lack the sanctions which normally help maintain the academic integrity of the classroom; students may not see a connection between doing their work in the IEP and realizing their personal goals. Finally, the students may be cut off from important student health services and counseling.

A strong case was presented for the community college IEP model where open enrollment policies can lead to effective screening and developmental placing of students from both international and immigrant backgrounds. Students in the latter category who have graduated from American high schools pose a particularly thorny problem in developing appropriate freshman English instruction in a four-year public institution.

Did the discussion stray from the topic of "ethics"? The participants did not think it did. The bedrock ethical issues of the IEP are: providing the student/consumer with the best possible education/product; managing the program in conformance with the best practices of enlightened personnel management. As long as the IEP is a marginalized endeavor supported for its revenue generating potential, the ethical health of the organization is compromised.



Editorial Comment on the Baltimore TESOL

Our congratulations to the movers and organizers behind the scenes of the Baltimore Conference. It was one of the most efficiently run conferences we have attended to date. There was adequate space, minimal distances to travel between presentations, and a sense of an organizational core that was intelligent and humanistic.

TESOL '95: Building Futures Together
A joint conference with the California Association of Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages (CATESOL)

March 28-April 1, 1995
The Long Beach Convention Center
Long Beach, California USA

The Inviolable Core

by Fredricka L. Stoller

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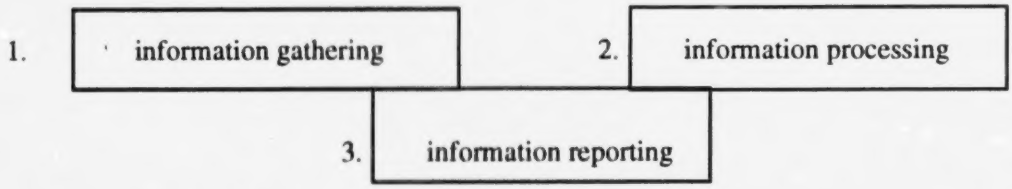
core elements that permeate the program and could permeate others, even with a different configuration of course offerings.

First, an effective way to prepare students for courses outside sheltered IEPs is to engage students in a theme-based, integrated-skills approach. Through such an approach, defined by topics of genuine interest that lead to authentic occasions for language use, language becomes the vehicle with which to explore content (Eskey, 1992). Furthermore, a theme-based approach allows us to a) eliminate the artificial separation between language instruction and subject matter classes; b) stimulate an enhanced level of engagement by the students; and c) simulate the demands of regular university courses (Brinton, Snow, & Weache, 1989).

Second, we must expose students to the "academic routine." That is, students must learn what the academic process entails and participate in that process, a process I see as involving three interlocking components:



1. information gathering (reading, listening, note-taking, observing, asking questions, doing library research . . . .)
2. information processing (analyzing, inferring, thinking, applying, discussing, synthesizing. . . .)
3. information reporting (writing; speaking — discussions, oral presentations, class participation; testing; citing sources . . . .)

Third, we must familiarize students with the expectations of the academic community. Students must understand what professors expect of them and what students can expect of professors and peers. For example, professors expect students to be familiar with the academic process; they look for active student involvement throughout the entire academic term, not just at the end point; and they object to any act of plagiarism.

Incident #2 and its relationship to the status of an IEP on campus

While I was conducting research on innovation in the IEP setting (Stoller, 1992), one case study interviewee assertively stated that "IEPs have got to get themselves out of the academic basement." This respondent, not alone in my study, noted that the questionable and irregular status of IEPs on campus limits the credibility of the programs and their potential for innovation. Furthermore, the mission of the IEP is frequently a low priority for host institutions because the language teaching conducted in the IEP is often viewed as remedial, developmental, and compensatory. In addition, the differentiated status of IEP faculty sets IEPs apart from other academic units on campus and limits professional development opportunities and professional recognition. It therefore seems essential that IEPs "ascend to ground level" by

1. educating the university community about their mission, the rationale for their programs, and the nature and demands of L2 learning;

2. refraining from the use of terms that carry negative connotations (e.g., "remedial," "deficient," "compensatory") because such terms only foster unproductive stereotypes;

3. maintaining and "broadcasting" our professional and academic affiliation with TESOL and NAFSA as well as MA-TESL, education and/or applied linguistics programs on campus.

Incident #3 and its relationship to IEP faculty

The third "incident" actually represents my continuing interaction with conscientious, caring, and professional IEP faculty and administrators—at my own institution and at local, regional, and national conferences—who are searching for better ways to meet the challenges of the IEP. Perhaps the truly inviolable core of an IEP is an interested, involved, and creative faculty. Professionals who create a collaborative working environment with a continual interchange of ideas and who are granted the freedom to initiate and innovate are essential to an effective IEP (Stoller, 1992).

In sum, IEPs represent complex and vibrant academic units, housed in even more complex academic institutions. The inviolable core of the IEP is defined by curricular, status, and faculty issues. By simulating the demands of regular university courses, IEPs can guide students toward language mastery and eventual success in academic degree programs; by enhancing our image on campus, IEPs can gain deserved respect and the clout needed to impact university policies that affect IEP students and faculty; and by creating a good working environment for IEP faculty, one which exploits, in the positive sense, their creative energy and professionalism, IEPs can better serve students and the academic community at large.

Endnotes

[1] Frank Pialorsi, of the Center for English as a Second Language (University of Arizona), originally invited me to address this question on a panel at the University of Arizona Roundtable IV: Provocative Issues in TESL on February 12, 1993.

[2] I was first exposed to this way of thinking about the academic process by Cheryl Kraft and Mary Alvin at the American Language Institute, University of Southern California.

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Educational Tourism and the IEP: Incorporating Tourism Content

Anita Kess, University of Victoria, B.C. Canada

When teachers and administrators think of IEPs, our primary image is probably that of classroom instruction. Our students, on the other hand, are more likely to think of the attractions of campus life, the excitement of the local color, and the availability of tourism opportunities in the area. Certainly, when recruiting students for an IEP, it is this tourism side of the program which offers tangible reasons for students to select a given school. All programs claim to offer well-trained teachers, small classes and organized instruction, so students find it difficult to make a choice on that basis. Students gravitate toward schools in areas that are well-known tourist destinations; this explains the rapid growth of IEPs in places famous for their scenery or attractions, such as Southern California.

Knowing that your students may well have been attracted to your school only because your local scenic attractions looked good in the program brochure, how do you incorporate their expectations into your program?

Administrators and teachers should acknowledge the part that tourism plays for students. Tourism may seem "fluffy" compared to the intellectual gymnastics required to master the irregular verbs, but the student is the client; he or she probably chose your school because it promised to fulfill a travel fantasy. Too often program planning ignores the students' mindset; the student chose your school so he could see Precipitous Falls, and never a word about Precipitous Falls is ever mentioned in class. To avoid cognitive dissonance, it is wise to embed the students' desire to be tourists into a larger program of language learning for which the tourism element is a central part. Planning visits to local attractions as part of the students' recreational time is part of the story. The second, less commonly-utilized part, is using class time to prepare the student for the trip with vocabulary and survival phrases, and to build unified lessons around content provided by the attraction. There are a number of ways of emphasizing tourism that are not expensive or time-consuming.

Administrators can help students enjoy their trip more by helping teachers to focus the course on tourism content. They can encourage teachers to use this rich field of content in framing their lessons in several ways. Administrators can arrange to have numerous copies of up-to-date maps and brochures of local attractions on file during the program, so that teachers can freely incorporate them into lessons. Files of activities based on this content could be kept, to which all teachers contribute a copy of their exercises or lesson ideas. In this way an arsenal of activities based on tourism content can be amassed quickly. Administrators should ensure that the teachers have had the opportunity to visit local sites of interest so that they can be confident about incorporating material about the attraction into their lessons. It may be possible to arrange free or reduced entry for teachers so that they can see the attraction before the program begins. Administrators also have the responsiblity to inform teachers of the importance of tourism to the program's continued success, and to

encourage their understanding of this reality.

Teachers, for their part, can make use of the tourist attraction in developing many aspects of language learning. So often we struggle to invent clever themes and materials for lessons when there is a lot of commercially produced advertising material close to hand in the form of brochures and leaflets. For oral work, students can cut and paste brochures and maps to make visual aids for a classroom presentation, such as: "Three Highlights of my Trip to Precipitous Falls". For beginning students, maps of the local area can be used in paired work; students can practice explaining how to get from the school to various local attractions. Students can do contact activities, such as surveys, on campus or at the tourist site and then report on their findings. The advanced students may find it interesting to conduct taped interviews with people from the community who know the history of the area and can put its historic sites into context. Obviously, there are many ways to develop oral exercises around tourism material, but there are opportunities for teaching other skills as well.

For reading, use information from brochures to create level-appropriate paragraphs or essays about local tourist attractions. These can be used in a number of ways. Teachers can develop cloze exercises from them, ask students to write summaries of them, and so forth. An information-sharing approach to using these essays is to form a group of three or four students and give each student a different essay. Each student should read the essay and then orally summarize it for others in the group. Then assign them the group task of writing an advertisement, critique or description of attractions in the area by including information from all of the essays you gave for reading.

Listening skills can be developed by inviting guest speakers, such as tour guides, park rangers, or other local people who can speak knowledgeably about the local tourist attractions. This also serves to make the attraction more real to the students and give them a personal connection to it. Is there a club or organization making use of natural parks in your area, one whose members would share their interests with your students? Hiking, walking or orienteering clubs are possible examples of organizations that might welcome guests, as are birdwatching groups or groups of trails maintenance volunteers. Meeting volunteer groups and clubs can provide some one-to-one conversation and listening as well as help your students become familiar with the historic and natural attractions of your area.

Obviously, the ways in which tourist attractions can be incorporated into the IEP are limited only by the imagination. It is up to administrators to faciliate the use of the attraction. Then it is up to teachers to assign students individual or group tasks involving related material, and up to teachers to realize the importance of tourism to their students and to the success of their program.

TESOL AWARDS: DON'T BE LEFT OUT

TESOL offers a variety of awards to members: travel grants to attend the TESOL Institute or annual convention, fellowships for graduate study, and financial awards for excellence in teaching, materials development or research. There are also awards to honor contributions to affiliates and valuable service to TESOL and the profession.

For award descriptions and application/ nomination guidelines, consult the June/July 1994 issue of *TESOL Matters* or contact TESOL at 1600 Cameron Street, Suite 300, Alexandria, VA 22314-2751.

Don't delay because all applications/ nominations must be received by the TESOL Central Office on or before November 15, 1994.

TAKE ADVANTAGE OF THESE

Promoting Intercultural Friendship in the ESL Classroom

Elisabeth Gareis,
American Language Program, The University of Georgia

Although, as research has shown, foreign student satisfaction and well-being in the United States are integrally tied to the development of close friendships with Americans (Rohrlich & Martin, 1991) and although close contacts with host nationals also facilitate overall adjustment (Furnham & Alibhai, 1985) and contribute significantly to a positive evaluation of the host country after the sojourn (Kapoor & Smith, 1978), the lack of American friends is often one of the major complaints of foreign students. This social separation from the host country can have different effects:

1) it can lead to physical isolation and a retreat into a private world;
2) it can cause an immersion into work and studies;
3) or it can foster a banding together with fellow nationals or students from other countries.

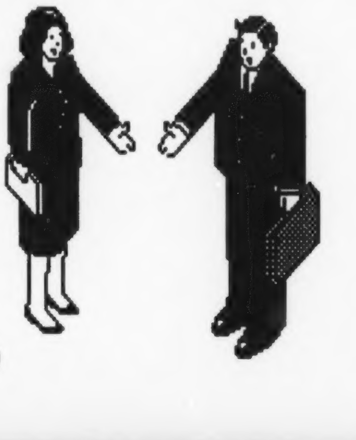
In addition, foreign student isolation from the host country can create a vicious circle of impeded English improvement and perpetual contact difficulties (Bochner, Hutnik, & Furnham, 1985).

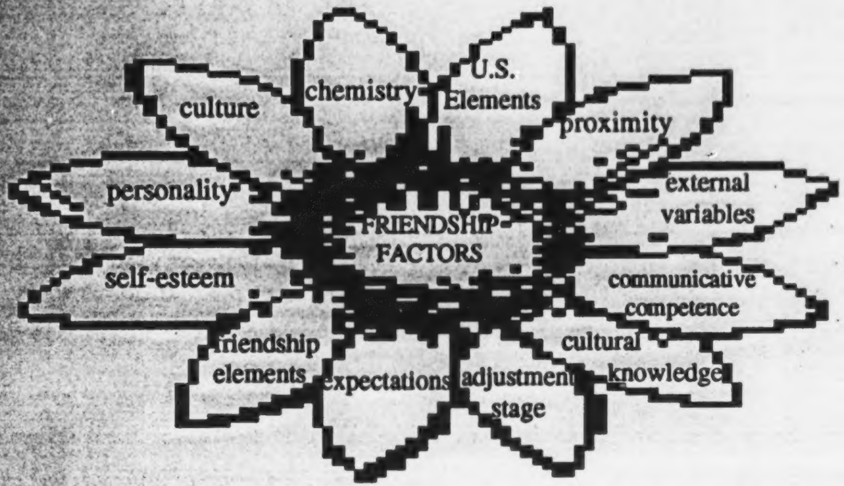
Factors Influencing Intercultural Friendship Formation

The question then arises of what exactly influences intercultural friendship formation. Twelve key factors can be identified: culture, personality, self-esteem, friendship elements, expectations, adjustment stage, cultural knowledge, communicative competence, external variables, proximity, U.S. elements, and chemistry.

The first five variables (culture, personality, self-esteem, friendship elements, and expectations) focus on the predisposition of the individual sojourner. The term culture hereby refers to similarities and differences in deep culture and the resulting social distance between interactants. Personality encompasses specific personality traits, such as levels of openness, stability, and sensitivity, and the prevalence of a cultural or personal identity within an individual (Ting-Toomey, 1986). Self-esteem denotes levels of self-awareness (as a prerequisite of other-awareness) and self-confidence which, especially in the case of cultural identification is also related to the national status accorded the sojourner's home culture (Du Bois, 1956). The next predisposition factor, friendship elements, comprises the rules and behaviors characteristic of friendships in different cultures. Finally, expectations refers to the rationale of the sojourn (Roland, 1986), i.e., whether the individual is task-oriented and came only for a degree or professional advancement, or whether the adaptive motivation of a cross-cultural seeker is prevalent.

The second group of factors (adjustment stage, cultural knowledge, and communicative competence) comprises the major elements present in the testing ground of the actual sojourn. The termadjustment stages thereby is actually com-





FACTORS INFLUENCING INTERCULTURAL FRIENDSHIP FORMATION

posed of two tiers:

1) the developmental stages of intercultural sensitivity (Bennett, 1986)--denial, defense, minimization, acceptance, adaptation, and integration--;
2) and the stages of culture shock.

Cultural knowledge refers to the sojourner's understanding of the host culture, and communicative competence denotes language skills as well as personal attributes necessary for effective communication. Together, these factors may determine the success or failure of the sojourn.

The third group of factors (external variables and proximity) might be labeled auxiliary since they add minor influences. The term external variables comprises a variety of elements said to influence sojourn outcomes: e.g., previous transition experiences, socioeconomic status, level of education, area of studies, source of financial support for the sojourn, and urban or rural background. Proximity denotes the physical closeness of sojourners and host nationals, such as might exist in shared housing arrangements or community involvement activities.

Whereas the preceding ten factors are all to some extent influenceable and changeable by the sojourners, the last two (U.S. elements and chemistry) are givens and largely out of their control. U.S. elements refers to the attitudes, intercultural sensitivity, levels of interest, and knowledge of Americans concerning contact with foreign sojourners, factors which no doubt vary by geographic location. The term chemistry describes the more intangible and still unresearched elements of mutual attraction and liking.

Suggestions for Implementation

Since cultural adjustment, language proficiency, and sojourn satisfaction are so closely tied to host culture interaction, ESL teachers and administrators should consider aiding their students in the quest for meaningful contact with Americans. They can do so not only by making students aware of the factors influencing friendship formation but also by directly addressing three of the most influenceable factors: cultural knowledge, communicative competence, and proximity.

Cultural Knowledge

Cultural knowledge refers to the familiarity with the elements of deep culture, including hidden assumptions underlying surface signals, and an ease of using them in daily life.

Students should be introduced to the patterns of daily interaction, social organization, time and space perceptions, thinking style, customs, behaviors, beliefs, and values of the host culture, specifically as they touch upon close personal relationships.

Concepts such as culture shock and ethnocentrism could also be included and skills such as conflict management and ethnographic-type observation techniques practiced to enhance cross-cultural learning and promote a smoother adjustment period.

Communicative Competence

Inseparable from cultural knowledge is communicative competence. Traditionally, communicative competence was defined as mere linguistic proficiency. This narrow definition, however, has long been discarded in favor of a more comprehensive picture featuring a wide range of elements. Most relevant for friendship formation are nonverbal, vocal, and verbal icebreakers, conversational skills, and relationship skills.

Icebreakers are elements of intercultural communicative competence that foster a relaxed atmosphere and invite further interaction. Nonverbal icebreakers include appropriate physical distance between conversation partners, appropriate use of touch, gestures, body posture, trunk leaning and direction, eye contact, facial expressions, and head movements. Vocal icebreakers comprise pleasant volume, pace, and pitch range, clear enunciation, and appropriate levels of intensity. In the verbal realm, acceptable vocabulary, grammar, pronunciation (including stress and intonation), and fluency are among the elements contributing to a relaxed atmosphere and the likelihood of further interaction.

Naturally, native speakers vary in their acceptance of nonverbal, vocal and verbal proficiency levels. In general, however, members of a culture or speakers of a language tend to react favorably if members of an outgroup move toward them, but tend to have negative reactions if cultural or linguistic expectations are violated to a sufficient degree (Gudykunst, 1991). With first impressions often crucial in the pursuit or nonpursuit of relationships, students need to be aware of these icebreakers and familiar with their use.

In conjunction with icebreakers, general conversational skills facilitate the process of initiating and deepening relationships. Skills include ritualistic expressions (such as greetings and compliments), starting conversations and taking turns, appropriate selections of topics, effective organization of speech, descriptiveness and informativeness, asking and giving clarifications, and supportive behavior (such as reinforcements and feedback). Understanding and using humor is a definite plus, and a generally high level of attentiveness and perceptiveness desirable.

Relationship Skills

Whereas conversational skills mainly address questions of language use, relationship skills focus on issues of a social and psychological nature. They include such traits as friendliness, sincerity, self-awareness, other-orientation, social relaxation, and the ability to self-disclose, guide conversations, assert oneself, manage conflict, and initiate and develop relationships.

Books discussing relationship skills are usually geared toward native speakers in search of more effective social behavior. This is not to criticize foreign students' social skills; however, many behaviors associated with socially unskilled native speakers (e.g., difficulty initiating contact and participating in groups, failure to show agreement or approval, taking longer to respond, and giving briefer responses— Elsler & Frederiksen, 1980) are often problems ESL students face due to linguistic difficulties or insecurities. Unfortunately, native interactants might not differentiate between underlying reasons for the behavior and, as a result, lose interest in further contact no matter what the reason.

Proximity

The last of the three most influenceable factors in friendship formation is proximity. Whereas housing arrangements between foreign students and Americans can be controlled by only a few ESL programs, teachers do have plenty of opportunity to promote the active involvement of their students in the community. Ethnographic research projects can be assigned, field trips undertaken, and students encouraged to independently join clubs, partake in student activities or do volunteer work.

Model Application

If the above mentioned curriculum seems overwhelming or the often haphazard inclusion of individual elements in regular ESL classes unsatisfactory, administrators and teachers might consider creating a separate orientation program or cross-cultural adjustment course for their students. I recently had the opportunity to teach such a course as an elective in an intensive English program.

Besides covering elements of U.S. deep culture and adjustment issues, we carried out a term-long friendship project. In a weekly journal assignment, each student first explored his/her own interests, did community research on avenues that cater to these interests (clubs, organizations, noncredit classes, etc.), selected one avenue, and attended the appropriate meetings regularly for the rest of the term. Simultaneously, we practiced icebreakers, conversational skills, and relationship skills in class— progressing from initial encounters to more advanced relationship stages, such as making invitations and deepening conversations. The students then applied the skills in their self-selected out-of-class meetings and reflected on the experience in their journals.

The course thus provided not only insights into U.S. culture and the adjustment process, but also confidence and tools for interacting with Americans. Many students commented that the class made their life in the United States much easier and more enjoyable and suggested that it be required of all new students:

> There is a story about a spectator going up to international golfer Gary Player after he had played an excellent shot to near the hole from a difficult bunker and saying: "Gee, Mr. Player, you're a lucky golfer." Player replied: "You know something? The more and more I practice, the luckier and luckier I get." (Nelson-Jones, 1986, p. 80)

By encouraging students to practice and reflect on the processes of cross-cultural interaction, they can learn to take responsibility for their involvement in the host culture and their friendships with host nationals. Familiarizing students with the intricacies of these processes can thus be one of the most invaluable educational experiences of their sojourn.

Conclusion

Since close interpersonal relationships with host nationals not only promote language improvement but also affect adjustment and sojourn satisfaction, students should be aided in their often difficult search for an American friend. ESL administrators and teachers can do so by imparting cultural knowledge, introducing communication strategies, and encouraging community involvement. Given the tools, interested students can then learn to take an active role in the pursuit of host country friendships and make the most of their stay.

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ANNOUNCEMENTS

13th & 14th December 1994, Cairo, Egypt.

First EFL Skills Conference:
"New Directions in Writing"
(Reading/1993; Listening/1996; Speaking/1997)
Call for proposals now in progress:
on all aspects of EFL/ESL writing
(training, teaching, testing, research,
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all levels of instruction)

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THINK AHEAD!
TESOL '95 SWAP SHOP

The Swap Shop, an annual convention event, encourages the exchange of lesson ideas. On Thursday, March 30, 3-5 p.m. participants should bring 200 8.5" x 11" copies of the teaching materials to be swapped (headed by lesson title, participant's name, school or program, TESOL interest group—elementary, secondary, bilingual, adult, or higher ed.— and intended ESL/EFL level) to an area to be designated in the convention program. The first 200 to do so will receive an admittance ticket to the Swap Shop on Saturday, April 1, from 10:30 am-12:30 pm. Once inside, all swapped copies are free. We encourage your participation in this friendly and useful exchange. If you are particularly proud of your submission, we encourage you to send a copy to the Macdonalds for possible publication in this newsletter.

Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages
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Intensive English Programs Newsletter

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Report on the University-Affiliated IE P National Database Project

Rebecca Smith Murdock
University of North Texas

To manage their units effectively, all Intensive English Program (IEP) directors need a great deal of comparison data regarding faculty and administrators, program organization and related demographics from comparable IEPs across the U.S. All IEP Administrators have experience accumulating data on an as-needed, piecemeal basis. For example, in preparation for an important budget meeting or when deciding on a tuition increase, IEP directors commonly call several colleagues to compare information, and they respond each year to several surveys of varied length and complexity, usually asking very similar questions. The University-Affiliated IEP National Database Project is an attempt to establish a regular, systematic, national survey to obtain a broad range of data specific to U.S. IEPs which are directly affiliated with four-year colleges and universities.

With the support of three TESOL Interest Sections (Program Administration, Intensive English Programs, and Higher Education), the project received a "Special Project Grant" from TESOL to cover the basic costs of the survey. Survey diskettes, with approximately 400 questions, were mailed to 260 IEPs affiliated with four-year colleges and universities, using address labels supplied by the Institute of International Education. There were 104 surveys returned, of which 89 were usable.

Although the 34% return rate on this first survey project was disappointing, there is a vast amount of important helpful national and regional IEP information that is now available. The project design has been evaluated and plans for improvement made; the flaws in design, implementation, and analysis have become obvious. We all hope that a vastly improved national IEP survey can be continued every three years in the future, with a much higher return rate.

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Newsletter Submission Guidelines

The *IEP Newsletter* solicits submissions on a continuing basis, twelve months a year. These may be announcements and exchanges, short entries (250 to 500 words) on effective teaching methods, problems of IEPs with tested solutions, discussions of teachers' rights and responsibilities, questions of unionization and so forth. Longer, more pedagogically oriented articles (550-1000 words) are also welcome. We encourage the exchange of opinions and ideas in response to published articles, with several authors taking different positions on the same concern or controversy. We solicit your ideas and materials.

Deadlines for contributions to particular issues are May 30, September 15, and January 15th (though convention information will be accepted down to the wire). Please send typed, double-spaced articles in hard copy as well as a high density disc in **MacWrite II**, **text-only** or **ASCII** format. Newsletter editors reserve the right to edit any material submitted for publication to enhance clarity or style and to shorten submissions to fit available space. However, authors will be consulted if changes are substantial.

Proposition 187 at TESOL

TESOL's Executive Director, Susan Bayley, has expressed the Association's concern that Proposition 187 will not "worsen California's already tenuous race and immigrant relations." She hopes that convention discussion of the law prohibiting health and education services to illegal aliens will lead to greater public recognition of the value of immigrants to the U.S., and particularly to California.

One forum for this public appreciation of immigrant worth will be the granting of the prestigious President's Award to Le Ly Hayslip. The award recognizes the contribution of an individual outside of the profession to issues of concern to ESL/EFL professionals and TESOL. Ms. Hayslip has enhanced the understanding of and sympathy for Vietnamese refugees through her books, *When Heaven and Earth Changed Places* and *Child of War, Woman of Peace*.

The Award will be given on March 29, the opening night of the 1995 Convention, at the Long Beach Convention Center. TESOL's position on Proposition 187 will also be promulgated at that occasion. During the convention itself, a panel of experts will review Proposition 187 and connected immigration issues.

Executive Director Bayley encourages all TESOL members and other interested parties to attend the Long Beach meeting and to celebrate the contributions of immigrants to California and the nation.

--continued from p. 1 "National Database"

A summary of the results of the first survey and plans for the future of the project will be presented at the Long Beach TESOL Convention on Wednesday, March 29, 10:30-11:15 a.m.

* *

Inquiries for further information and questions about the survey can be addressed to:

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Editorial Comment on the Database Project

From the long view, our profession of teaching English to speakers of other languages is in its infancy. True, professional English language teachers have been around at least since Norman French began disappearing from England in the thirteenth century, but as a modern profession with a scholarly/academic foundation in scientific research informing pedagogy and practice, TESOL's history is measured in decades, not centuries. Now, ironically, the research components of the profession are better organized and their results better disseminated than the circumstances surrounding modern teaching, the point where theory becomes practice: we have as little hard data about some of our own colleagues in 1995 as we have about our Anglo-Saxon pedagogical forebears. Who teaches and how much for how long? How much do they earn? What are their working conditions? Answers to such questions have been necessarily impressionistic and anecdotal; highly visible programs dominate the scene, but may well be anomalous, perhaps even because of their visibility. If our profession is to reach maturity, its various limbs and organs must develop with some synchronicity; labor and management must be guided by fact and reason as well as by contact with colleagues over personally created information networks. This is not just a question of metaphorical completeness: the job done in the classroom is directly related to employment practices, to their strengths and shortcomings.

In the last one hundred years reliable information widely disseminataed helped transform the practice of medicine from a largely local craft guided by intuition and instinct into a national and international art based on science and technology. Our yearly TESOL meeting provides a forum for presenting the latest in methods and approaches; TESOL's journals and other publications offer scholarship and research. What is missing is a mechanism for gathering data about the practicioners of the craft. Such data would not simply be a useful management tool but rather a fair means of creating level playing fields, of reforming abuses, of moving toward national standards which will give the profession the dignity and respect it deserves. While information alone will not result in an apotheosis, it would offer a vision of the road we all wish to travel.

Andrew Macdonald, Co-Editor

TESOL '95:
Building Futures Together

March 28-April 1, 1995
The Long Beach Convention Center
Long Beach, California USA

A joint conference with the
California Association of Teachers of English to
Speakers of Other Languages (CATESOL)

Evaluating Student Writing: One Scale or Two?

Tay Leslie, Culver City, California

Like most IEPs, ELS Language Centers has used different rating scales to evaluate writing. Recently, after a period in which our teachers had the opportunity to experiment with two alternate scales to evaluate end-of-session writing tests, we asked those who had used the scales if they preferred one approach, and if so, whether they would like to adopt one of the scales as our "official" rating instrument. The (for us, at least) surprising response: (a) Yes, they prefer one of the scales; (b) No, they do not want an official scale. It appears that even though most teachers prefer and tend to use only one approach, they still appreciate the flexibility that comes with having access to more than one scale.

The Tests

The writing tests are samples of student writing generated during a 50-minute period. Students taking the tests have a choice of topics to write on, and are instructed with respect to the form and approximate length (e.g. several paragraphs with an introduction and a conclusion) of the essay they are expected to produce. The writing tests are given at the end of beginning, intermediate, and advanced levels and are used in determining student readiness to exit these levels.

The Scales

The measures used to evaluate the writing tests are an analytic and a holistic rating scale.

Evaluation using the analytic scale is based on the assessment of a piece of writing with respect to ten characteristics: topic selection, paragraphing, thesis, organization, coherence, logical development of ideas, sentence structure, grammar, mechanics, and vocabulary. Unlike some other well-known analytic scales (e.g., the ESL Composition Profile used in Jacobs et al, 1981), the ELS analytic scale is non-weighted, i.e., each of the ten characteristics counts the same as any other. The scale is in the form of a list of questions (for example, "Is there a clear main idea or thesis?"). Students pass or fail based on the number of yes or no answers given by the evaluator.

Use of the holistic scale, in contrast, involves rating two broad factors: (a) content, which includes factors such a topic selection, organization, and other rhetorical features; and (b) language, which subsumes areas such as grammar, vocabulary, and mechanics. The evaluator scores each of the two factors separately and adds them together to obtain a total rating, which must be above a certain minimum for the student to pass.

The Questionnaire

The survey sent out to teachers included the following questions:

1. Have you used both rating scales?
2. Of the two scales, do you prefer one?
3. If yes, which do you prefer?
4. Why do you prefer this scale?
5. Do you think ELS should have an "official" rating scale?
6. Why or why not?

Results

One hundred and twenty eight completed questionnaires were returned, a total which represents close to 20% of the teaching staff employed at the time of administration. The responses show that the vast majority (86%) of respondents have used both scales, but most (69%) prefer one. Of those responding to the question about preference, 75% indicate that they prefer the holistic scale, while 25% prefer the analytic. Those preferring the holistic frequently refer to the greater speed and efficiency with which this scale allows them to evaluate the tests. Though they recognize that the holistic scale may be more subjective, they feel it offers, in the words of one respondent, "a less rigid, more open way" to evaluate a piece of writing. On the other hand, those preferring the analytic scale speak of the greater objectivity, clarity, and directness of that approach. A number of respondents explain their preference for one or the other of the approaches simply by saying that it (whether analytic or holistic) accords better with "the way I think."

Approximately 80% of respondents oppose the adoption of a single rating scale, and the comments they make relating to this question are instructive. For many, there is simply no need. Since both scales seem to work about equally well, teachers should be able to use the approach that they are most comfortable with, or that best suits their teaching style. Having two options also allows teachers to be more creative. As one respondent states, "I like the structure of the topics given and a base for assessment. However . . . I feel it is very important to have room for 'our own voices.'" Beyond these considerations, there is the realization that the two scales represent incomplete but essentially complementary approaches to the assessment of writing. Though only one approach is needed in most evaluations, using both together can help in borderline or difficult cases. In this sense, "both forms together [emphasis in original] make an effective instrument."

Summary and Conclusion

Two rating scales (an analytic and a holistic scale) were implemented at ELS Language Centers with the expectation that after a period in which teachers used both, a preference would emerge for one or the other scale. This scale would then be selected as our official rating scale.

In fact, no such selection has occurred. Limiting ourselves to the use of one officially-sanctioned scale seems neither useful nor necessary. Though a polling of teachers confirmed that the holistic was preferred over the analytic by a margin of four to one, most teachers still prefer to retain both scales. One reason given is that teachers should be able to "follow their own style" but also there is the recognition that having more than one option enables teachers to evaluate more effectively. In any case, we have found that practice with the rating scales has helped to improve teachers' understanding of the elements of successful writing and increased their confidence in their ability to make judgments about students' written work.

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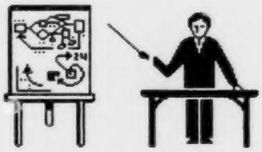

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HELPFUL TIPS
Campus Informants: Involving "Experts" in IEP Acculturation Programs

Andrew & Gina Macdonald, Loyola University

The following is typical of the type of short articles providing helpful teaching tips that we would like to include in this newsletter. We solicit your contributions.

One of the most frustrating experiences for the IEP student preparing for academic courses at a U.S. institution is to develop a fairly good listening proficiency in language classes only to discover that comprehension of regular lectures is difficult to impossible. Some of this failure to transfer listening skills no doubt derives from the unfamiliar content of academic lectures and the formidable vocabulary necessary for true comprehension, but we believe some of the problem derives from unfamiliar accents, speaking styles and speaking pace: the student's ear and mind are accommodated to her/his IEP teachers but not to strangers.

Our attempted solution is to invite a series of campus "experts" to lecture our students about their field of expertise. Every college campus has numerous administrators who often feel isolated and out of touch with the students they serve, and especially from the international community. Apart from obvious invited speakers such as associate/ assistant academic deans speaking about programs and requirements, we have developed a list of about fifteen "informants," allowing one "lecture" a week (We encourage a lecture followed by discussion: about fifty-fifty). We have had talks by representatives of the career/ counseling service, the campus health center, security, the media center, the library, food services, parking enforcement, dormitories, the recreational center, computer labs, registrar, admissions, and the city transit system. While the "lectures" and the give-and-take discussion vary widely in quality, many administrators welcome the opportunity to publicize their programs, and some discover they actually enjoy the challenge of speaking to non-native speakers.

Experts are available free on every campus. The following are some representative examples:

1. Student Health Facility Representatives
    a. to assist with interpreting and filling out initial health forms;
    b. to speak about care or prevention of common campus health problems.
2. Counselling Services spokesperson (for example, psychological services or study skills speaker on budgeting time).
3. Career Counseling
    a. Self-evaluation and counseling about career choice;
    b. Resume preparation, interviewing skills, job search strategy.
4. Spokesperson for the Recreational Center about facilities available and requirements for use; opportunities for intramural sports, membership in athletic teams.
5. Spokesperson for Transportation services:
    a. intracampus travel,
    b. city transportation (in our city a spokesperson is assigned to visit schools with timetables, brochures and even cardboard buses and streetcars to assemble).
6. Campus Security:
    a. to warn about crime in the city: areas to avoid, precautions to take -- how to prevent a mugging -- what to do about a mugging,
    b. to warn about crime on campus and precautions to be taken,

Predictable Problems:

The Portuguese/Brazilian Student in the IEP Writing Program

Raul Paiva, S.J.
Former IEP Student, Advisor to the Jesuit Schools of Rio de Janeiro
Editor of the *Journal of Ignatian Spirituality*

Because of the obvious differences between Portuguese and English, an IEP student suffers some linguistic and cultural difficulties when trying to tackle composition assignments in English. As a former participant in an IEP program, one in which I was required to write a series of short papers which were expanded, corrected, processed and eventually developed into a single, lengthy final submission, I personally had to examine those linguistic and psychological barriers which cause headaches for the Portuguese-speaking English-language learner. This paper will briefly address some of the key differences that affect Brazilians writing in English. These differences include attitudes toward flexibility, argumentation and euphony.

Flexibility

Probably the principal source of difficulties for the Portuguese speaker studying English is the more flexible character of Portuguese word order compared to English. In English, placement, rather than inflection, determines meaning whereas in Portuguese inflections reveal functions and relationships and word order is highly variable. Thus a typical English sentence like "I am doing what I deem good for you", with its rigid subject-verb-complement order, seems totally alien to Portuguese speakers. In Portuguese a variety of word orders are possible, many of which would make no sense in English, and placement for euphony, rhythm and emphasis take precedent. The placement of adjectives is particularly troublesome. Native English speakers and writers have an instinctive knowledge of fairly inflexible order for a string of adjectives modifying a noun; native Portuguese speakers and writers, in contrast, are absolutely indifferent to adjective placement. In fact, a (as in "um *grande* homem" = "a *great* man" versus "um homem *grande* " = "a *big* man") is very rare indeed in Portuguese.

Argumentation

Another key source of difficulty for the Portuguese student of English is the English desire for a clear spelling out of an argument with a thesis statement and an argumentative plan reducible to a skeletal outline that follows a clear-cut pattern of proposition, explanation or developmental support with concrete examples or illustrations, and conclusion. Portuguese/Brazilian thought patterns as expressed in writing are more implicit than explicit. Neither the direct articulation of a specific thesis nor a concluding statement are requisite for effective communication in Portuguese. The ideal writing approach is one in which the thesis and the conclusion are implicit in the context. Consequently, the patterns required for effective writing in English seem obvious, redundant, and simply unnecessary to a Brazilian, while those of the Brazilian seem cryptic and incomplete to the English-speaking reader.

Euphony

A final difference of language and perspective that affects communication and learning involves what each culture interprets as "good" writing. For an English writer, shorter is better: brevity, clarity, and precision are virtues, and sound is less important than sense. To a Portuguese writer, in contrast, (except of course for journalists, for very special reasons), euphonic is better. The Portuguese sentence may be much longer and more intricate than the English sentence. Clauses may be connected with commas in a series that in English would be considered a run-on sentence or a comma splice, and, in fact, Portuguese-speaking IEP students will need to be told over and over again why this style is unacceptable in English, because it will seem so natural and right to them. Of course, thoughtless repetition should be carefully avoided by educated people in both languages but a euphonic pattern of repetition for emphasis or rhythm may be quite desireable. In Portuguese, emphasis has priority over structure.

Conclusion

Of course, English is not a "rigid", "paralytic" idiom, nor is Portuguese a "confused" and "prolixic" one. They are merely different. An awareness of these differences can help the IEP teacher recognize the linguistic and cultural differences that create in the Portuguese speaker studying English a blindness to English patterns of language and thought necessary for successful communication. This awareness can also help the IEP student understand that a different psychology is at work in the two languages and that what seems obvious, clear and desirable in one language is not so obvious, so clear nor so desirable in another.

Dealing Effectively with Indonesians

Eddy Pramono, Freeport McMoran Indonesia
Former IEP student from Indonesia

Conflict:

Indonesians do not like to argue, perhaps because they understand how opponents feel after the conflict ends and how really difficult it is to forget strong emotions. If an argument is unavoidable, it must be conducted in an enclosed room under carefully controlled circumstances. Most Indonesians seek to avoid such sensitive topics as religion, ethnic differences, customs and racism, approaching them cautiously and indirectly only when necessity compels. Because of the past history of the region, most Indonesians recognize how important and how difficult it is to keep the present unity of highly diverse peoples. Therefore, discussion of any disturbing matters must be confined to an atmosphere of great mutual respect. If not, there could be chaos. For this reason, Indonesian students studying in IEP programs will be uncomfortable with debate, argumentation, controversy or disagreement of any sort. Competition among group members is undesirable and preferably avoided.

Politeness:

Because of its Eastern heritage, Indonesia values politeness. Some politeness rules that directly affect participation in IEPs include the following:

1) It is impolite to speak directly to the point. Instead, circumspection and circumlocution are standard polite patterns. Indonesian custom is to begin with a broad general explanation of the reason for discussing a matter prior to speaking specifically about it. The type of direct thesis or topic statement common in U.S. writing does not simply disturb Indonesians: it seems rude.

2) It is also hard for Indonesians to accept self introductions. It is more acceptable to have someone known by the group to introduce an individual rather than for the individual to introduce himself. For this reason, the standard round-robin introduction pattern common in IEP classes makes Indonesians uncomfortable.

3) Many actions or gestures commonly accepted in western cultures are impolite or even rude in Indonesia. Examples include:
   a) Asking an Indonesian to come by moving a pointing finger
   b) Touching the head of someone (even married couples will not touch each others heads in public)
   c) Placing one's foot on top of a desk while sitting in a chair
   d) Crossing the legs so the foot points at someone.

4) Although handshaking has become accepted, the rural Indonesian handshake might seem limp and unwelcoming by American standards but this actually just indicates shyness.

5) Touching a lady other than one's wife is impolite.

6) Indonesian women prefer to be called "Mrs." rather than "Miss" or "Ms."

In sum, Indonesians differ from Americans in way of life and thought, and often find the American experience unsettling.

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In sum, Indonesians differ from Americans in way of life and thought, and often find the American experience unsettling.

Predictable Problems: The Russian Student in the IEP Writing Program

Paulina Bazin,
Ivanovo State University, the Ukraine
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Russian students of English face grammatical and cultural differences that inevitably affect the learning process.

Grammatical Differences

The Russian English learner in the IEP classroom must inevitably deal with a number of difficulties that result directly from the different grammars of English and Russian. The most readily recognizable problems, the tendency to leave out articles and to not capitalize in the many places English-speakers capitalize, result directly from the absence of articles in Russian and the Russian pattern of capitalizing only proper nouns. More important, however, is the Russian reliance on inflections rather than word order to express grammatical relationships between words (e.g., krisha doma - the roof of the house). The result is that Russians tend to change the position of different parts of sentences, especially placement of subject and object, because the wealth of inflections makes order irrelevant. Of course, following the same practice in English will not only result in chaos but incomprehensibility. For example, a Russian learner may say "A new movie saw my girlfriend in New York" instead of "My girlfriend saw a new movie in New York" because in Russian placing a direct object first comes naturally and makes no difference in meaning when the direct object carries an accusative inflection and the subject a nominative inflection.

Another key grammatical difference affecting Russian English learners is the Russian reliance on gender. In Russian gender does not depend on actual sex but on grammar. Thus the Russian speaker will use "he" not only for male human beings but also for objects like tables, chairs and telephones, because these words are masculine nouns in Russian: "This telephone is no good because he has no dial tone." In like manner, such objects as a chalkboard, notebook and pen are feminine in Russian so Russians will use "she" to refer to them: "My pen is out of ink even though she is new."

Russian also uses double or even triple negatives whereas English does not. In fact, a Russian grammar rule requires that negative pronouns and adverbs occur only in conjunction with negative verbs. As a result, where English speakers will say "Nobody wanted to eat," Russian speakers will say, "Nobody didn't want to eat." Typical too is the Russian handling of "Nobody had either a pen or a notebook." For a Russian learner it will be much more natural to say: "Nobody didn't have neither a pen nor a notebook."

Verb requirements will also cause major difficulties. Russians studying English tend to omit linking verbs like "to be," especially in the present tense, because this form is not used in Russian. Where Americans will say "Alexander is at home," Russians will say simply "Alexander at home." The same type of omission occurs in progressive tenses, so that "My friends are reading a book" becomes, in the hands of a Russian speaker, "My friends reading a book." Whereas English cannot have a sentence without a subject and therefore relies on "there is" or "it is" to fill in, Russian is far more flexible and actually has sentences with neither subjects nor verbs. For instance, where the English speaker says "It is cold," the Russian speaker says merely "Cold." For this reason, teachers can predict that Russians learning English will have problems with the concept of the fragment.

Moreover, English continuous and perfect tenses are difficult for Russian speakers to comprehend because, where English has as many as sixteen tenses, depending on how one counts,

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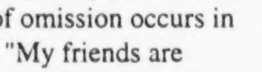

Russian has only three tenses: the Past, the Present and the Future. Thus, a Russian speaker tends to use the Present Indicative for both Present Indicative and Present Continuous, the Past Indicative for Present Perfect, Present Perfect Continuous, Past Perfect, and Past Perfect Continuous as well as Past Indicative, and the simple Future for all future tense forms: Future Indicative, Future Continuous, Future Perfect, and Future Perfect Continuous. Furthermore, Russian has a totally different approach to verb usage to indicate time relationships, so tense is not as important to communication as a quality of the verb Russians call "aspect." That is why Russian students tend to simplify English tenses.

There are numerous other interference problems. For instance, Russian rules for commas, colons, and semicolons are quite different from English punctuation rules, and, in fact, commas are much more important and used with greater frequency than in the English sentence. Sometimes Russian punctuation rules contradict English rules. For example, in the sentence "The man who gave me this dictionary is my friend" English speakers would include no commas because the relative clause is restrictive, but Russian speakers would include commas because of Russian rules requiring more frequent comma use. Punctuation is much more complicated and grammatically necessary in Russian than in English.

Cultural

Russian learners of English like all other people coming from another country with another language, experience a lot of difficulties not only in mastering the new language, which is completely different from their own, but mastering a new culture as well. Understanding some of the differences in the way of life Russian students are used to should help teachers make such students feel more at ease meeting a completely different educational system with different demands and requirements.

A. The Russian School System

The Russian student's school and college life is completely different from that encountered here. A six- or seven-year-old Russian child acquires elementary, middle and high school education in the same school building with the same group of people (unless the family moves to another town or changes school districts within the city). The five (for most colleges) years of college involve a standard set of courses with virtually no electives, five days a week from 9 a.m. till about 4 p.m. The student's decision about a major, chosen upon university application, determines the courses to be taken and the group of people with whom all college classes will be shared. Students cannot withdraw from courses they don't like or feel they may fail. They have to pass all tests in all subjects; otherwise, they cannot continue their education.

The testing and grading system is also different. Half of the tests are oral, and the written ones are essay-type tests. The five-point grading system includes the passing grades of excellent (5), good (4) and satisfactory (3), and is not really objective enough to evaluate students' knowledge.

B. Russian Life

Teachers should also take into consideration some cultural differences which may lead to misunderstanding during topic discussions. When describing the number of rooms in a house or an apartment, a Russian student will refer to a two-bedroom apartment as a three-room one, and a one-bedroom apartment will be called "a two-room " one. This is because most Russian apartments are too small to have separate bedrooms, so living-rooms are used as bedrooms at night for children or parents depending on family decisions and needs.

When a Russian student says "dinner," he means the main meal which is usually taken later during the day and consists of several courses. As for lunch, it's usually a little snack consisting of a soft drink and a pastry. In the evening a Russian will have "supper," which is usually lighter than the midday meal, and he will definitely be

--continued on page 7, "Russian"

ANNOUNCEMENTS

IEP IS Open Meeting (Business Meeting)
Wednesday, 5:00-7:00 p.m.
Convention Center Room 104 section C

IEP IS Planning Meeting
Saturday, April 1, 5:00-6:00 p.m.
Convention Center Room 104 section C

TESOL '95 SWAP SHOP

The Swap Shop, an annual convention event, encourages the exchange of lesson ideas. On Thursday, March 30, 3-5 p.m. participants should bring 200 8.5" x 11" copies of the teaching materials to be swapped (headed by lesson title, participant's name, school or program, TESOL interest group—elementary, secondary, bilingual, adult, or higher ed.— and intended ESL/EFL level) to an area to be designated in the convention program. The first 200 to do so will receive an admittance ticket to the Swap Shop on Saturday, April 1, from 10:30 am-12:30 pm. Once inside, all swapped copies are free. We encourage your participation in this friendly and useful exchange. If you are particularly proud of your submission, we encourage you to send a copy to the Macdonalds for possible publication in this newsletter.

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Intensive English Programs Newsletter

Volume 12, number 3, Summer 1995

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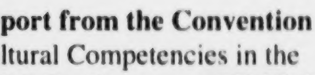

TESOL ACCREDITATION OF IEPS: Results of the Survey

Bill Harshbarger, University of Washington

History:

In November of 1994 TESOL sent out a survey to just over 700 IEPS in the U.S. that followed a previous survey conducted by the Task Force on Accreditation Feasibility. The first survey had indicated that accreditation of IEPs by TESOL appeared to be both feasible and desirable. The second, more detailed survey was conducted at the request of the TESOL Board of Directors and had three main objectives:

1. to determine more fully the nature and degree of interest in accreditation of IEPS by TESOL, with particular emphasis on ability to pay accreditation costs.
2. to identify the variety of program types which might be involved in accreditation, how they are administered and what their current accreditation status is.
3. to determine what concerns or opinions are held regarding accreditation of IEPs, with particular reference to whether the same or different standards should be applied to all IEP types.

The following report highlights some of the major results of that survey.

Survey Results:

450 surveys were returned yielding 399 valid IEP responses. The non-valid responses were largely from ESL programs which turned out to not be intensive in nature.

Program Types:

Of the valid responses, 57% are administered by a university or college and 23% are administered by a business entity. Other programs are administered by non-business and non-profit entities.

Some of the IEPs which are administered by a business entity are also associated with a university or college; over-all, 85% of all IEPs responding to the survey are associated with a university or college.

Current Accreditation Status:

63% of the responding IEPs report being accredited. Of these,

continued on page 3

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* * *

Newsletter Submission Guidelines

The *IEP Newsletter* solicits submissions on a continuing basis, twelve months a year. These may be announcements and exchanges, short entries (250 to 500 words) on effective teaching methods, problems of IEPs with tested solutions, discussions of teachers' rights and responsibilities, questions of unionization and so forth. Longer, more pedagogically oriented articles (550-1000 words) are also welcome. We encourage the exchange of opinions and ideas in response to published articles, with several authors taking different positions on the same concern or controversy. We solicit your ideas and materials.

Deadlines for contributions to particular issues are May 30, September 15, and January 15th (though convention information will be accepted down to the wire). Please send typed, double-spaced articles in hard copy as well as a high density disc in **MacWrite II, text-only** or **ASCII** format. Newsletter editors reserve the right to edit any material submitted for publication to enhance clarity or style and to shorten submissions to fit available space. However, authors will be consulted if changes are substantial.

NAFSA Field Service Professional Development Workshop

As greater numbers of international students enroll in two-year colleges, English-as-a-Second-Language Programs at these institutions face special challenges and demands. Two-year college ESL faculty and administrators are often required to serve both immigrant and nonimmigrant students and in attempting to meet the needs of these diverse student populations wrestle with issues such as developing appropriate curricula, formulating standards for admission and program completion, and managing the practicalities of credit transfer and articulation between two-year and four-year schools. Administrative issues such as where the ESL program is placed and how it is managed within the institution as well as the status of full and part-time faculty can also be problematic.

This workshop will look at the state of ESL teaching and program administration in two-year schools and will give participants the opportunity to identify common problems and issues. Through presentations, case studies, and small group discussions, time will also be focused on problem-solving and strategies for change. Optional visits to community college ESL programs in the Denver area will also be arranged as part of the program.

Dates/Location: Denver, Colorado, October 12-14, 1995

Workshop Fee: $150 (Includes three nights of lodging, several group meals and workshop materials). Reduced fee of $75 for those not requiring lodging.

Registration Deadline: October 1, 1995

Travel Grants are available through NAFSA. To request further information along with workshop registration materials, contact Elizabeth Bell at NAFSA (202/ 462-4811).

—Harshbarger, IEP Accreditation, contin. from p.1

63% are accredited as part of a college or university: 26% are associated with a college, but accredited separately; 6% are not associated with a college and accredited separately.

The strongest degree of satisfaction with current accreditation was among those accredited as part of a college or university. However, only 33% of IEPs accredited as part of a college or university report being part of a site visit, and 68% report that they are not considered in any way as part of the accreditation process.

Support for TESOL accreditation:

81% of all respondents supported TESOL accreditation of IEPs. Broken down by type of IEP (and only looking at currently accredited programs), 65% of university programs accredited by a regional accrediting body favored TESOL accreditation, 78% of university associated but independently accredited programs favored TESOL accreditation, and 61% of independently accredited non-university associated programs favored TESOL accreditation.

Support for Fees:

Only 40% of the respondents felt they could afford $2500/year for TESOL accreditation. This figure varied from only 19% of the programs currently accredited as part of a university or college to 71% among independent programs. It should be noted that the $2500 figure used in the survey was taken as a possible annual average cost to IEPs which would support a self-sustaining accreditation program. The actual cost would depend on how many programs participated and the sophistication of the accreditation program. In addition, it is possible that a sliding fee scale, based on program size, for example, could be adopted.

Evaluation Criteria: Same or Different?

One of the most controversial issues surrounding accreditation of IEPs is whether programs of widely differing sizes and types could or should be assessed by the same standards. The survey results showed that when considering University/College IEPs and Private (business or non-profit administered IEPs), 56% of the respondents felt that the same criteria should be used for accreditation. When considering Large IEPs and Small IEPs, 57% favor the same criteria, and when considering University/4 year IEPs and Community College IEPs, 67% want the same criteria used.

What Now?

Based on the results of this survey and the previous report of the Task Force, the TESOL Board of Directors voted to begin work on creating an accreditation program for U.W. IEPs. This work will involve professional consultants and staff from the TESOL Central Office working with volunteer representatives from a wide variety of IEPs. The initial planning and development stage is expected to take three years. During this time continued input from IEPs will be essential to the success of the accreditation effort.

The design and implementation of the accreditation program will involve many significant issues. Among them are whether or not to adopt a sliding fee scale, whether to use the same or different criteria for different program types and sizes, and whether the accreditation will signify that programs have met minimum standards or high ones. In addition to the potentially thorny issues surrounding the creation of criteria for faculty qualifications, curriculum standards and student services will need to be addressed. There is no question that this is a significant challenge, but given the level of interest that has been expressed by the profession, the will is there and, if we believe the adage, there must also be a way.

Note: The entire survey results report is over 40 pages long and includes a number of comments from the respondents. If you are interested in more details of the survey, both Terry O'Donnell at the TESOL Central office and I are available to respond to inquiries. See page 7 for more information.

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IEP Administration: A Bibliography of Sources

Mary F. Gawienowski, American Language Institute
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Abdullah, N. A. (1995, April). Coming of age: A Malaysian-American IEP in transition. Paper presented at TESOL, 1995, Long Beach, CA. Presentation by one of the founders of an IEP in Malaysia who worked with Indiana University to set up a rigorous English program. Addressed issues of status of the IEP in the university, faculty hiring, cultural differences/miscommunication.

Adams-Davis, J. & Hamrick, J. (1995). Where does the money go? Comparing IEP administrative costs. TESOL Convention Program, 332. (Abstract No. 3697) A comparison of budgets and structures between 2 IEPs. [Audiorecording of session available from TESOL.]

Alderson, J. C. (1990). British tests of English as a foreign language. In D. Douglas (Ed.), English language testing in U.S. colleges and universities (pp. 41-49). Washington, DC: NAFSA. Describes the different system of testing and test development in the U.K. Discusses a study of issues of comparability and predictability between the U.S. TOEFL and the U.K. CPE (Certificate of Proficiency in English). No results offered as article written before study completed.

Angelis, P. J. (1990). English language testing: The view from the English teaching program. In D. Douglas (Ed.), English language testing in U.S. colleges and universities (pp. 19-26). Washington, DC: NAFSA. Discusses the types of on-site placement testing possible for determining the level of incoming international students. Also addresses issues related to retesting students once on campus and setting up placement policy.

Angelis, P. J. (1982). Student evaluation. In R. P. Barrett (Ed.), The administration of intensive English programs (pp. 81-87). Washington, DC: NAFSA. Covers different tests types that may be part of an IEP, such as placement, curriculum specific, and assessment/ achievement. Also looks at the pros and cons of in-house designed vs. standardized tests.

Aquilina, P. , Een, J. , Jerome, M. & Quinn, D. (1995). Faculty administrators: The program cohesion. TESOL Convention Program, 388. (Abstract No. 4442) Results of a case study at Columbia University looking at how expanded roles of faculty and administrators contributed to greater unity in their ESL program.

Balderston, F. E. (1981). Dynamics of planning: Strategic approaches and higher education. In J. A. Wilson (Ed.), Management science applications to academic administration (pp. 51-61). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass Publishers. Examines five approaches to improving the decision-making process concerning the future direction of an organization as they apply to higher education administration. Discusses the benefits and drawbacks of each approach.

Barnes, G. A. (1992). A model for effective staff development. Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of TESOL. Vancouver, B.C.: Canada. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 347 829) The author draws on his own experience setting up an IEP and background literature to demonstrate and support his Interactive Model of Staff Development. The model, applied specifically to an IEP situation, also offers insight into creating an environment in which all positions can contribute to the development of each staff member in an IEP.

Barrett, R. P. (1990). Overview of ESL testing. In D. Douglas (Ed.), English language testing in U.S. colleges and universities (pp. 1-8). Washington, DC: NAFSA. Briefly describes some of the tests used for admission to a university and placement in an IEP. Also looks at the future of ESL testing as more ESP-oriented and with greater integration of culture and communicative skills.

Barrett, R. P. (Ed.). (1982). The administration of intensive English language programs. Washington, DC: NAFSA. A classic reference covering almost all literature on IEP administration pre 1962. Includes articles on the needs of IEP students, IEP faculty, curriculum, testing and evaluation, and research. [Note: out of print. says NAFSA]

Barrett, R. P. (1982). A guide to references in ESL methodology for the intensive program. In R. P. Barrett (Ed.), The administration of intensive English programs (pp. 77-79). Washington, DC: NAFSA. A list of materials recommended for setting up a small resource library for IEP teachers. A good beginning but much published later of great benefit to teachers.

Barrett, R. P. & Parsons, A. (1985). Quality components of intensive English programs. TESOL Newsletter, 19, 15-16. Describes the typical Intensive English Program and 10 common characteristics IEPs share. Also shows how a *quality* IEP fits the characteristics. Succinct: a useful overview of IEPs.

Bens, A. R. (1982). Advising and the intensive course. In R. P. Barrett (Ed.), The administration of intensive English programs (pp. 19-25). Washington, DC: NAFSA. Advice for setting up an advising program in an IEP, and a discussion of the most vital areas in advising: immigration, academic and personal advising. Also raises possible problems advising and offers solutions. Gives 10 guidelines for IEP advisors.

Bensimon, E. M., Neumann, A. & Birnbaum, R. (Eds.). (1989). Making sense of administrative leadership: The "L" word in higher education. Washington, D.C.: School of Education and Human Development, the George Washington University. This book relates leadership theory and organization theory to higher education and administration. It clearly explains these theories and how they might lead to more effective leadership in higher education. Important to

IEP Administration because it explains leadership and management theories, areas in which many IEP administrators feel weak.

Bergman, V. , Davidson, J. , Evans, N. , Harshbarger, B. , Jerome, M. , Palmer, I. & Pickett, S. (1995). TESOL, an accrediting agency for IEPs: Pros and cons. TESOL Convention Program, 228. (Abstract No. 1010) A session discussing possible outcomes of TESOL becoming an accrediting agency for IEPs. [Audiorecording available from TESOL.]

Blaber, M. , Carkin, S. , Cummings, S. , Rowe-Henry, A. & Wren, H. Women in ESL/EFL administration: Designing strategies for the future. TESOL Convention Program, 346. (Abstract No. 3879) Panel members discuss strategies for effective administration and compare male/female strategies. [Audiorecording available from TESOL.]

Bloomfield, S. D. & Updegrove, D. A. (1981). Modeling for insight, not numbers. In J. A. Wilson (Ed.), Management science applications to academic administration (pp. 93-104). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass Publishers. Presents modeling, where management science provides a structured program to help a problem-solver identify a satisfactory solution, as a format to help administrators find greater insight into problems.

Brown, J. D. & Pennington, M. C. (1991). Developing effective evaluation systems for language programs. In M. C. Pennington (Ed.), Building better English language programs (pp. 3-18). Washington, DC: NAFSA. An overview of ESL or language program evaluation based on six categories: existing records, tests, observations, interviews, meetings and questionnaires.

Brown, K., Carkin, S., Pech, B., Smith, R., Stevens, S. & Wallace, B. (1995). The national IEP database project: A progress report. TESOL Convention Program, 378. (Abstract No. 4328) Update on work funded by 3 TESOL interest sections to set up a database of information on IEPs.

Bulthuis, J. D. (1986). The foreign student today: A profile. In K. R. Pyle (Ed.), Guiding the development of foreign students (pp. 19-27). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Inc. This article discusses data related to who foreign students are, such as the growth in numbers of international students in American universities and where they come from. It also presents some areas in which international students might have trouble adjusting, such as time, equality in the classroom, etc.

Burris, B. H. & Heydebrand, W. V. (1981). Educational control in the United States. In J. A. Wilson (Ed.), Management science applications to academic administration (pp. 5-25). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass Publishers. Reviews the history of academic administration in the U.S. from 1600 as a way of understanding the current technocratic system. The authors use the case of Yeshiva University (1974) to analyze the question: Are faculty of a university managers or professionals?

Byrd, P. (1994). Faculty involvement in defining and sustaining the mission and standing of IEPs in U.S. higher education. Journal of Intensive English Studies, 8, 27-35. Talk presented at a NAFSA Field Service Workshop on Professional Development outlining the need for IEPs to bring faculty who are skilled and knowledgeable into the process of defining the IEP's mission and curriculum.

Byrd, P. & Constantinides, J. C. (1991). Self-study and self-regulation for ESL programs: Issues arising from the associational approach. In M. C. Pennington (Ed.), Building better English language programs (pp. 19-35). Washington, DC: NAFSA. Presents concerns about the moves by NAFSA and TESOL to standardize self-evaluation projects and turn them into something similar to present accreditation procedures, which are often viewed by the academic world as painful processes.

Byrd, P. , Miller, B. , Perdreau, C. , Pialorsi, F. & Thewlis, S. (1995). A professional print for the IEP in higher education. TESOL Convention Program, 370. (Abstract No. 4199) Summary of a NAFSA Field Service workshop on campus-based IEPs. [Audiorecording available from TESOL.]

Cadieux, R. A. J. & Wehrly, B. (1986). Advising and counseling the international student. In K. R. Pyle (Ed.), Guiding the development of foreign students (pp.51-63). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Inc. Discusses the similar and unique responsibilities foreign student advisors have compared to regular advisors. Suggests foreign student advisors need special competences: an understanding of other educational systems and a flexibility and openness to cultural differences.

Curry, K. G. (1995, April). Building your program's future through faculty portfolios. Paper presented at the annual TESOL convention. A presentation by the curriculum director at Wichita State University of the portfolio method used to evaluate and continue professional development of faculty. Examples of portfolios were available for viewing.

Daesch, R. L. (1982). Student development in the IEP. In R. P. Barrett (Ed.), The administration of intensive English programs (pp. 51-55). Washington, DC: NAFSA. Recommends adding a program to develop students' understanding of new environment simultaneous to language classes and to help students' social integration.

Dakin, R. F. (1982). The selection of intensive English students. In R. P. Barrett (Ed.), The administration of intensive English programs (pp. 11-18). Washington, DC: NAFSA. Discusses issues related to IEP student populations, such as recruitment, admission standards, and balance of same first-language speakers, and pros and cons for all options for addressing these issues.

Davidson, J. O. (1994). Boosting faculty/staff morale at a university-based intensive English program. Intensive English Program Newsletter, 11(2), 6-7. Morale falls into two broad areas: intrinsic and extrinsic. In IEPs, extrinsic factors

--continued p. 11--

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Cultural Competencies in the ESL/EFL Classroom: A Report from TESOL '95

Eli Hinkel
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Cincinnati

The colloquium titled *Cultural Competencies in the ESL/EFL Classroom* took place on April 1, 1995 and consisted of six presentations that addressed the impact of L1 culture on language learning, teaching methodologies, and classroom techniques. Eli Hinkel, Xavier University, introduced the speakers and presented a general summary of current research on establishing common ground in student and teacher behaviors usually encountered in the transition from L1 to L2 environments.

Rebecca Oxford, University of Alabama, and Neil Anderson, Ohio University, in their presentation, *The Influence of Cultural Variables on Language Learning Strategies: Evidence from the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning,* established that Strategies Inventory in Language Learning (SILL) represents an effective instrument for determining the types of L2 learning strategies. Their study involved 2,858 ESL or EFL students from Puerto Rico, Taiwan, Japan, Egypt, and the U.S., and demonstrated that SILL can be applicable to a wide variety of students. Specifically, their findings indicate that in L2 learning, students from Puerto Rico rely predominantly on social/cognitive and general compensation strategies, those from Taiwan on memory and analysis, and compensation in reading, from PRC metacognitive and affective, from Japan metacognitive/social/affective, from Egypt request and repetition, sensory memory, and compensation in reading and listening, and those learning L2 in the U.S. on compensation and nonanalytic strategies.

Susan Carkin, Utah State University, presented *Negotiating Academic Cultures: The Transition of IEP to University,* an overview of selected processes and expertise that facilitate the transition of international students from IEPs into the university. She provided the listeners with a detailed annotated bibliography of research on learner autonomy, self-regulation, and motivation in language learning. She also discussed classroom approaches to promoting student independence and responsibility and increasing learner involvement in constructing social and cognitive support necessary to achieve educational goals.

Joan Kelly Hall, University of Georgia, addressed interactional practices and interactional competence in her presentation, *Developing a Prosaics of Interaction.* She stated that regularly occurring, conventionalized, and purposeful interaction involves knowing the types of interactional practices being invoked, the direction of subsequent moves, and the likely outcomes of those moves. She advised that students can be trained to collect and analyze interactional practices in the L2 socio-cultural community and suggested a variety of classroom projects that can serve to meet instructional objectives associated with face-to-face interactions.

Kenneth Rose, Hong Kong Baptist College, reported on approaches to teaching L2 pragmatic strategies and developing L2 competence in EFL settings in his presentation, *Teachers and Students Learning about Requests (in Hong Kong).* He noted that directing students to collect data about L2 pragmatic strategies can lead to many classroom activities and research undertakings that compare the data to L1 and L2 research. He also constructed a list of guiding questions that can assist both teachers and students in identifying dichotomies in L1 and L2 pragmalinguistic enactments.

Lawrence Bouton, University of Illinois, gave a presentation entitled *Teaching Values, Beliefs and Assumptions through Advertisement,* on Gorden's concept of the hidden assumptions in advertising and ways of deriving American values from advertising examined in the ESL classroom. He presented methods and techniques (accessible to most ESL/EFL teachers) which employ magazine advertising to highlight and illustrate American socio-cultural notions, such as goodness and desirability, personal outlook and behavior, and "silent assumptions" that govern interactions between members of the society. The advantage of using advertisements lies in their authenticity, explicitness, and relevance to specific situations common in the L2 culture.

In a related presentation, *What is your point?: Indirectness in L1 and L2 Writing*, Eli Hinkel presented her research on identifying strategies ubiquitous in the writing of American and ESL students. The goal of her study was to extend the understanding of indirectness in writing and establish the specific linguistic features that make the writing of ESL students from Confucian and Taoist cultures appear vague and indirect. She analyzed 30 essays written by native speakers of American English and 120 essays written by speakers of Chinese, Japanese, Korean, and Indonesian. Her findings demonstrate that although such rhetorical devices as analogies, understatements, and point of view distancing were rarely used in the writing of both native speakers of English and non-native speakers, native speaker and non-native speaker writing differed significantly in the usage of twenty other features, e.g. hedges, the passive voice, and impersonals. Because her study was based on specific linguistic parameters of indirectness, Hinkel indicated the non-native speakers can be taught to employ constructions that diminish the overall appearance of vagueness and avoid repetition and overstatement.

IEP TESOL ACCREDITATION

For more information on this topic see Bill Harshbarger's 1994 article entitled "TESOL task force urges accreditation of intensive English programs" in *NAFSA Newsletter*, 45(6), 1 & 28-31. Harshbarger provides a brief history of the TESOL task force study of the feasibility of TESOL becoming an accrediting agency for IEPs, discusses why IEPs may need to be accredited or may feel threatened by accreditation, and argues that change is inevitable and that the government may step in if the field does not provide its own accrediting agency.

According to the new IEP section Chair, Norman Evans, TESOL has agreed to act as an accrediting agent for Intensive English Programs. His discussion of this move and its implications will appear in the next issue of this newsletter.

* * *

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Predictable Problems of Japanese Students: In-group Belonging and Saving Face

Anita Kess
Program Coordinator
English Language Program International
University of Victoria, British Columbia

If you meet your Japanese students as they arrive at the airport you will observe them struggling with their huge rolling suitcases. Each piece of luggage weighs as much as its owner, and is full to bursting with all of the items necessary to preserve life, sanity and status while abroad. These suitcases are a metaphor for the invisible cultural baggage your students also bring; few travel light.

Japanese learners travelling to North America for English instruction tend to exhibit a number of predictable behaviours and attitudes which teachers may anticipate. The Japanese learner comes to North America with a lifetime of exposure to the Japanese culture; the Japanese language, education system, family organization, philosophical and religious heritages all shape the learner to have a very different set of expectations than do North Americans. These influences can produce a number of typical behaviours which North American teachers view as positive, such as the fact that Japanese learners rarely question teacher authority, have good classroom deportment, have neat handwriting, score relatively high on tests of grammar, and frequently give small gifts to their teachers. The inevitable downside does exist, and some learners experience conflicts when the behaviours dictated by their Japanese cultural backgrounds prove to be dysfunctional in a North American language class.

Although simple, the basic notions that can assist teachers in understanding Japanese students are the idea of in-group and out-of-group and the idea of saving face. Many problems experienced by Japanese students stem from these cultural concepts.

Japanese culture exists on the basis of belonging to a mutually supportive in-group; one's team, one's family, one's company are all examples of in-groups. In-group members are expected to assist others in the in-group, to take their affective states into account, and to act in ways which support the harmony of the in-group. It is not appropriate for the teacher to be part of the student's in-group, as belonging would put the instructor at odds with the expected cultural roles of teacher and "foreigner".

A factor which leads to the formation of Japanese culture groups within a class is the cultural tendency of Japanese to consider the affective state of others in the in-group. The comfort and security of others within the in-group is very important to Japanese, and thus it becomes a culturally defensible and noble act to sit with another Japanese rather than someone of another culture, because that other Japanese student "might be lonely". In this way the student who is offering help is also alleviating his or her insecurities under the acceptable guise of in-group altruism.

Class dynamics can be complicated by the intense sense of in-group belonging among Japanese, who sometimes find it very difficult to integrate with other cultures. This is especially true if the class has many Japanese in relation to other cultural groups, as the Japanese students will naturally gravitate toward those whose responses and actions they find more comfortable and predictable. In classes where the majority of students are Japanese, the Mexican or Taiwanese students may find themselves immersed in an English language class with a Japanese classroom culture.

Nationality can be basis for in-group inclusion or exclusion. Classroom environment can deteriorate if the teacher is unaware of longstanding national and ethnic conflicts which exist between the Japanese students and other groups in the class. A quick review of Japanese history will show historical enmities between Japan and Korea, China, and Russia, not to mention the United States and Great Britain. Japanese students may not be aware that imperialist initiatives which occured in the time of their grandparents, and are hardly mentioned in Japanese history classes, may be central to their classmates' view of them as a nation and as individuals. In cases like this, the Japanese students may find it difficult to understand why they are not being welcomed into the class group and express disbelief that anyone could interpret their culture in negative ways.

Within Japan there are minority groups which are invisible to us as outsiders, but who are subject to subtle discrimination by mainstream Japanese. Ethnic Koreans who have resided in Japan for generations, or the historical untouchable class of Japan, the Eta, appear to the outsider as mainstream Japanese; they dress and speak like the other Japanese students, yet they may not be accepted by the Japanese ethnic majority. Sometimes a Japanese student who is having difficulty being accepted by the Japanese in-group may turn out to be a member of an ethnic minority invisible to the teacher, but very visible to the students.

Saving face is a notion familiar to many of us from B movies and TV, but it is often misunderstood. It is a social custom which is more often directed at saving the dignity of others in the in-group than at saving one's own. For instance if one Japanese student is unable to answer a direct question by a teacher, it is sometimes impossible to get any other Japanese student to even hazard a guess. This is not because they do not know, but rather because they do not want the student who could not answer to look foolish or lose face.

Obviously, Japanese students feel more responsibility toward each other than North American students do. This feeling of responsibility can be a motivator, but it can also freeze a student with terror. Students who are selected for leadership of small group activities may experience intense anxiety because they are at risk of losing face if their performance is not good. For instance, if there is to be a student dictation, the student reading the sentence aloud may take all of the responsibility for the performance of his or her team. The student may tremble with nervousness. Should the classmates fail to understand, even because of their weakness in listening, the reader will feel a loss of face at having let the team down. The reader feels terrible because of having contributed to making the others feel bad because they failed. It is clearly a position fraught with anxiety.

Teachers often tease or joke with students in order to show familiarity and friendliness. Teachers would be well advised to remember that Japanese students are very conscious of their public dignity; barbs which would be considered mild teasing to a North American student can be interpreted as personal slashes at a Japanese student. Any personal comment of a negative nature, no matter how gently or jokingly phrased, may cause a serious loss of face to the student. Playing into this problem is the reluctance of the Japanese student to make any criticism or correction of the instructor, based on the gulf of social distance between students and instructors which typifies the Japanese education system.

Teachers who can see students as whole individuals whose cultural attitudes and expectations are sometimes at odds with those of North American culture are in a position to become more aware of their own cultural baggage, and to assist their Japanese students in their efforts to learn and acculturate. Even with a good background of knowledge, it is still probable that cultural misunderstandings will occur, but sensitivity to cultural issues can be the basis for overcoming cultural clashes in the classroom.

Integrating Japanese Students into the ESL Classroom

Ellen Kocher
Loyola University
formerly of English Language Institute,
Nagora, Japan

The following are a series of practical classroom activities for integrating beginning and intermediate level students from Japan into the ESL classroom.

A. Because the Japanese students' social instinct is to do their best for the team or the group they are a part of, use the Japanese sense of in-group to promote participation and interaction.

1. through partner work in which the Japanese student is paired with a more talkative non-Japanese student who must ask direct questions and whose successful performance depends on the Japanese student's English skills.
2. through skits grouping two Japanese students with a non-Japanese to encourage the Japanese to bring the third person into their confidence and planning.
3. through various forms of competition, with teams used for grammar games, skits, library research hunts, and so forth.
4. through carefully selected "socially sensitive" in-groups. Older Japanese students should not be grouped with younger Japanese students since custom demands that the younger defer to the older; culturally mixed women's and men's groups work best. Have the non-Japanese students (of same age and sex) plan the group's activities, making sure they ask the Japanese students' opinion; since the small, homogenous group leaves Japanese students free of their built-in cultural inability to disagree with those of "higher position", they will feel freer to discuss and participate.

B. Choose materials that promote cultural discussions to encourage students to speak up on topics they know well and to gain insights into how other cultural groups function.

1. Read and discuss short, pointed articles on cultural differences: the Japanese often don't understand that the cultural rules of Japan do not apply in the USA and that their cultural avoidance of voluntary participation might be perceived as unfriendly and as indicative of low-level English skills. Articles discussing US and international cultural norms such as eye contact, body movement and proximity to others, timing in response to questions (and being on time) and greetings will help all students understand the diversity of international patterns and will provide the teacher a chance to introduce what is traditional in their region of the USA. Carefully selected reading assignments could help Japanese students avoid practicing rules at odds with their new groups, as well as help them recognize differences to which they may be culturally blind, for instance, those between the way Central Americans and North Americans act.
2. Use proverbs to promote discussion of cultural differences. The Japanese appreciate proverbs and will eagerly band together to explore them. Proverbs such as "Still waters run deep" could lead to a discussion of how valued quiet people are in Japan, in contrast to how "A quiet man cannot be trusted" in the Dominican Republic. Contrasts in interpretations reveal sets of "secret rules," that will help classroom groups become aware of reasons for behavioral differences. Of course, proverbs and ideas that the class members share can call attention to similarities between groups and can bring separate groups closer together.
3. Assign oral reports reading, explaining, and/or interpreting poems from many countries. Japanese poems in English will entice the Japanese students to join together to explain their country to the other students, and because of the Japanese method of teaching English, any activity involving literature is immediately taken with greater seriousness than ordinary activities, so poems instantly draw them into the classroom activity. Furthermore, having the Japanese students present first instead of last will give them a place of honor in the larger group of the

classroom and will oblige them to demonstrate their true abilities. Moreover, in terms of classroom psychology this placement means they are likely to set a high group standard for others to follow, as the Japanese students will work very hard to represent their group. Placing the Japanese student presentations later will automatically mean a weaker performance since they will try hard not to show up their classmates. Because the Japanese cultivate meekness and seeming lack of interest as a classroom ploy, any activity that involves them in group activities in which they set the standard will be more successful than ones in which they follow others.

* * *

--Continued from page 5: Gawienowsky, IEP Adminstration: An Annotated Bibliography--

related to teachers' income and status are the more common causes of low morale.

Davidson, J. O. & Mead, L. (1986). Forecasting enrollment in intensive English language programs. Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the TESOL. Anaheim, CA. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 271 969). Presents the method the authors used to predict student enrollment in their own IEP: to consider the total student population, new and former students, and major geographical areas from which the majority of students come. Very easy to understand and displays their predictions over five years of using the formula.

Dickson, G. L. (1991). Developmental theory and organizational structure: An integration. NASPA Journal, 28(3), 202-215. This article, from a student affairs journal, gives examples of reassigning roles in student affairs that allow for greater contributions and creativity on the part of all workers. Relates to themes in IEP administration such as service to students, lack of cohesion and ad hoc growth of the organization.

Dixon, R. G. (1982). The amenities, opportunities, and conveniences in a new home. In R. P. Barrett (Ed.), The administration of IEPs (pp. 27-31). Washington, DC: NAFSA. Views the housing, medical and learning experiences necessary and useful for new students, as well as minimum guidelines for helping students settle in.

Douglas, D. (Ed). (1990). English language testing in U.S. colleges and universities. Washington, DC: NAFSA. Although this book pertains more to regularly admitted international students, there is a strong relationship of those students to IEP students, especially to those in university-based IEPs. An IEP administrator would need to be knowledgeable in admission procedures and requirements, especially if the IEP is involved in any testing for the university. All chapters included but seven, which deals with ITAs.

Dussard, E. , Francis, L. P. , Harshbarger, W. , Hind, J. & Juzkiw, I. (1995, March). ESLprogram directors' roles and responsibilities: How they differ. Colloquium at the annual convention for TESOL, Long Beach, CA. Five directors of IEPs, both university-based and private, presented their role and responsibilities in their programs. Questions were taken afterwards.[Audiorecording available from TESOL.]

Edwards, D. D. (1991). A survey of selected intensive English programs on the campuses of higher education. Research paper for Master of Education, Texas A & M University. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 344 455) Eight IEPs were studied (7 in TX, 1 in SC) using a 3 page questionnaire to interview directors. The article summarizes the characteristics of the 8 IEPs and how they function.

Eskey, D. E., Lacy, R. & Kraft, C. A. (1991). A novel approach to ESL program evaluation. In M. C. Pennington (Ed.), Building better English language programs (pp. 36-53). Washington, DC: NAFSA. Uses the ALI at USC to prove that evaluation and use of an IEP are not necessarily limited to the students attending the program.

Eskey, D. E. (1982). Faculty. In R. P. Barrett (Ed.), The administration of intensive English programs (pp. 39-44). Washington, DC: NAFSA. Discusses staffing issues, especially the part-time vs. full-time controversy, and looks at the special needs of teachers-in-training, all as they relate to the responsibilities of the IEP administrator.

Faerman, S. R. & Quinn, R. E. (1985). Effectiveness: The perspective from organizational theory. Review of Higher Education, 9(1), 83-100. Investigates a competing values framework, as a way to improve the effectiveness of the administrative process in education. This model is meant as a guideline for figuring out the best, most effective administrative model for one's own organization.

Faraj, A. H. (1987). The role of the dean in an EFL program: A case study. CollegeTeaching, 35(1), 26-28. Personal account of the author's experiences as a dean at King Saud University, to propose ideas for other deans about changing their English programs. He values the role of liaison between administrators and teachers.

Forster, D. & Poulshock, J. (1995). Learning to manage in TESOL: Fundamentals of administration. TESOL Convention Program, 289. (Abstract No. 3113) Discussion of the basic knowledge and skills needed by TESOL administrators. [An audiorecording available from TESOL.]

Fox, R. P. (1991). Evaluating the ESL program director. In M. C. Pennington (Ed.), Building better English language programs (pp. 228-240). Washington, DC: NAFSA. Applies 10 points from Neugebauer's "The Well Director" to an IEP administrator: to discover weaknesses and ways to improve upon them, not to penalize.

Fox, R. (1988). ESL program administration in higher education. Washington, DC: Office of Educational Research and Improvement. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 303 045) Overview of the responsibilities of an IEP director. Same points as in Barrett's book, but Barrett covers them more thoroughly.

-- continued p. 12

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Gaffney, J., & Mason, V. (1983). Rationalizing placement and promotion decisions in a major ELT program. TESOL Quarterly, 17, 97-108. An explanation of Kuwait University's attempt to improve the English program by standardizing placement and assessment tests, and by requiring more consistent content and instruction from the teachers.

Genesee, F. (1994). President's message: Assessment alternatives. TESOL Matters, 4(5), 3. An article written by the present president of TESOL comparing the psychometric approach to language testing (old paradigm) with currently evolving approaches, which the author calls classroom-referenced assessment. Makes the point that these are complementary to each other and neither should be considered exclusive.

Grosse, C. U. & Lubell, D. (1984). A cross program evaluation of major intensive English programs. Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages. Houston, TX. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 246 660) Mainly tables showing the 41 received responses from IEP directors to questions on program size & structure, tuition, curriculum, faculty, program strength, and areas for development. Primarily displays data without much analysis.

Gunn, B. (1990). Political systems vs. management systems in collegiate organizations. Innovative Higher Education, 15(1), 73-82. This article reviews the history of political systems as dominant in academia and shows why this system is now counterproductive. It offers a clear description of the two systems of management and offers good arguments to support his opinion. It relates to IEPs in that his group/task oriented management system comes from a philosophy similar to that found in the field of ESL and IEP Administration.

Haas, G. J. (1990). English language testing: The view from the admissions office. In D. Douglas (Ed.), English language testing in U.S. colleges and universities (pp. 9-18). Washington, DC: NAFSA. The admissions office needs to be familiar with the tests of English that may be submitted by international students. They must learn how to interpret and decide on acceptable scores, and this should be done in conjunction with ESL professionals.

This bibliography will be continued in the Fall issue.

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Intensive English Programs Newsletter

Volume 13, number 1, Fall 1995

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PROPOSED INTENSIVE ENGLISH PROGRAMS EMPLOYMENT STANDARDS

Len Fox, Brooklyn College

TESOL has formed an Employment Standards Task Force whose charge is to present proposed employment standards to the Executive Board at the TESOL '96 Conference. The Task Force has been divided into three subcommittees: Higher Education, Adult Education, and Intensive English Programs. In the case of Intensive English Programs, as there already is a task force (under Paul Angelis) that is preparing proposed IEP standards, the IEP subcommittee is preparing "guidelines" which we will submit to Paul Angelis's committee to consider as they prepare their final standards. The following is a draft of employment standards guidelines that is being considered by the IEP subcommittee. Could you please send reactions and/or suggestions for revision of these guidelines to George Krikorian, 78 Kinnaird St., Cambridge, MA 02139?

1. Contracts and Job Security

A. All full-time and part-time faculty receive timely appointment letters or contracts.

B. Contracts for full-time and part-time faculty clearly state length of employment, number of hours, responsibilities, and remuneration.

C. All faculty are fully informed in writing of their employment prospects for the following term.

D. Evaluation procedures of employee performance are clearly defined. Formal notice is given of dissatisfaction with faculty performance with a probationary period and guidelines for improvement.

E. After an appropriate probationary period, part-time faculty receive progressively longer term contracts, i.e. for one to three years of employment.

F. Seniority is respected so that full-time and part-time faculty who have been rehired for several semesters can have a

continued on page 3

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* * *

Newsletter Submission Guidelines

The *IEP Newsletter* solicits submissions on a continuing basis, twelve months a year. These may be announcements and exchanges, short entries (250 to 500 words) on effective teaching methods, problems of IEPs with tested solutions, discussions of teachers' rights and responsibilities, questions of unionization and so forth. Longer, more pedagogically oriented articles (550-1000 words) are also welcome. We encourage the exchange of opinions and ideas in response to published articles, with several authors taking different positions on the same concern or controversy. We solicit your ideas and materials.

Deadlines for contributions to particular issues are May 30, September 15, and January 15th (though convention information will be accepted down to the wire). Please send typed, double-spaced articles in hard copy as well as a high density disc in **MacWrite II**, **text-only** or **ASCII** format. Newsletter editors reserve the right to edit any material submitted for publication to enhance clarity or style and to shorten submissions to fit available space. However, authors will be consulted if changes are substantial.

Through Our Eyes: An Invitation to Submit Student Papers

The editors of this newsletter are presently engaged in a project tentatively titled *Through Our Eyes* [Or *Through Our Eyes, In Our Voices*]: *Famous Personalities From Around the World Described in the Voices of their Own Young People*. You are invited to encourage your best students to submit papers for possible publication in what will be a cross-cultural reader composed of short student essays on important political, social, and artistic figures from around the world. All essays will be in English but written by nationals of the country or culture in which the figure played a role. We plan to include essays representing all the continents and most major languages, with emphasis on figures from cultures/ countries which have contributed large numbers of immigrants to the U.S.

The writing prompt calls for a four-to-five-paragraph essay focused on an important historical figure from the student's country, state, or region. The essay should provide a short sketch of who she or he was and what she or he did that was important. Perhaps a simple statement that "______ is respected/ admired/ hated/ disliked by citizens of _______ for three key reasons: ______, ______, and _______," followed by an explanation of those reasons would be the most effective way of getting started.

The audience is American young people (junior high and high school age) who have never heard of this person, who have only a vague idea about the writer's country, and who do not share the common knowledge, values, and assumptions of the writer. Thus, successful essays carefully consider audience, with the writer building in careful explanations for the audience, either direct ones that are part of the text or subordinate ones in the form of adjective clauses, appositives, synonyms, and so forth. There should be no words from the student's language, only English, so key quotations or battle cries and so forth should be translated into English.

--continued p. 3

--Fox, IEP Employment Standards, contin. from p. 1

reasonable expectation of continued employment.

G. Seniority systems for full-time and part-time faculty are clearly and specifically defined in writing.

2. Hours and Responsibilities

A. The workload for full-time ESL faculty does not exceed 15 contact hours per week.

B. The workload for part-time ESL faculty does not exceed 60% of the contract hours of full-time faculty.

C. Class size is appropriate to the goals of a particular course. Class size averages 15 students.

3. Salary and Benefits.

A. Salaries for full-time and part-time faculty are commensurate with the salaries of foreign language faculty with comparable degrees and experience. If there is no foreign language department, then salaries are commensurate with English department faculty with comparable degrees and experience.

B. Benefits for full-time and part-time faculty are commensurate with the benefits of other academic faculty with comparable degrees and experience.

C. Full-time and part-time faculty receive written guidelines for sick leave.

D. Part-time faculty receive pro-rata salary and benefits comparable to those of full-time faculty.

E. Part-time faculty receive compensation for student conferences and for faculty meetings.

4. Ratio of Full-time to Part-time Faculty

The number of hours taught by full-time faculty is a minimum of 85% of the total number of teaching hours in a program.

5. Qualifications

Faculty typically have an advanced degree or certificate in TESOL or applied linguistics

6. Working Conditions

A. Full-time and part-time faculty have adequate office space and support services comparable to those received by other academic faculty.

B. New full-time and part-time faculty receive adequate orientation and support.

7. Participation in Governance

A. Full-time and part-time faculty participate in faculty governance and decision-making processes.

B. Full-time and part-time faculty participate in decisions about course content, goals, schedules, instructional materials, and evaluation of courses.

8. Faculty Development

Full-time and part-time faculty are eligible for the same types of professional development events as received by other academic faculty.

FOR MORE INFORMATION CONTACT

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Tom Schroeder
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Utah State University
Logan, Utah 84322

Len Fox, Chair of TESOL
Employment Standards Task Force
English Dept.
Brooklyn College
Tel. 718-768-0161

--Through Our Eyes, continued from p. 2

By writing these essays your students will have a chance to contribute to the education of U.S. students and to promote cross-cultural understanding. Writers whose essays are selected for inclusion will receive a genuine New Orleans recipe for New Orleans-style Red Beans and Rice. Essays may be sent to the Macdonalds, English Department, Loyola University, New Orleans, LA. 70118.

The Art of TESOL
1996

IEP Administration: A Bibliography of Sources

Mary F. Gawienowski, American Language Institute
Indiana University of Pennsylvania

--continued from Issue 12 (3)

Dakin, R. F. (1982). The selection of intensive English students. In R. P. Barrett (Ed.), The administration of intensive English programs (pp. 11-18). Washington, DC: NAFSA. Offers pros and cons on options for IEP student population related issues(recruitment, admission standards, and balance of same first-language speakers).

Davidson, J. O. (1994). Boosting faculty/staff morale at a university-based IEP. Intensive English Program Newsletter, 11(2), 6-7. Discusses intrinsic and extrinsic effects on morale. In IEPs, low morale more commonly results from extrinsic reasons, specifically those related to teachers' income and status.

Davidson, J. O. & Mead, L. (1986). Forecasting enrollment in intensive English language programs. Paper presented at the Annual TESOL Meeting. Anaheim, CA. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 271 969). Provides formula authors used to predict student enrollment in their IEP, based on the total student population, new and former students, and geographical areas from which the majority of students come. Very easy to understand; provides five years of predictions based on their formula.

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Douglas, D. (Ed). (1990). English language testing in U.S. colleges and universities. Washington, DC: NAFSA. Focuses on regularly admitted international students, but relates strongly to IEP students as well, especially those in university-based IEPs. An IEP administrator needs to be knowledgeable about admission procedures and requirement, especially if the IEP is involved in any testing for the university. All chapters relevant but 7, which deals with ITAs.

Dussard, E. , Francis, L. P. , Harshbarger, W. , Hind, J. & Juzkiw, I. (1995, March). ESL program directors' roles and responsibilities: How they differ. Colloquium at the annual TESOL convention, Long Beach, CA. Five directors of IEPs, both university-based and private, presented their roles and responsibilities in their programs. Questions were taken afterwards. [Audiorecording available from TESOL.]

Hall, R. H. (1981). Contemporary organizational theory and higher education: Amismatch. In J. A. Wilson (Ed.), Management science applications to academic administration (pp. 41-61). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass Publishers. Contrasts organizational theory (goals, certainty, connectedness) in higher education with that in business to argue against the use of organizational theory in higher education administration.

Harris, M. (1991). Solutions and trade-offs in writing center administration. Writing Center Journal, 12(1), 63-79. Although not specifically related to IEP administration, this article details the responsibilities and problems Writing Center directors face, ones very similar to what IEP directors face: being unprepared for the position, being reviewed for tenure by people who may not understand your position, a lack of understanding on the campus of what you do, etc.

Harshbarger, B. (1994). TESOL task force urges accreditation of intensive English programs. NAFSA Newsletter, 45(6), 1 & 28-31. Provides a brief history of the TESOL task force that studied the feasibility of TESOL becoming an accrediting agency for IEPs; discusses why IEPs may need to be accredited or may feel threatened by it; argues that change is inevitable and that the government may step in if the field does not provide its own accrediting agency.

Henniger-Chiang, T. , Marcelino, D. , Murphy, J. & Soghikian, S. (1995). From hiring to firing: The program administrator's dilemma. Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages Convention Program, 229. (Abstract No. 1013) Four administrators present their views on faculty and staff employment issues. (Audiorecording available from TESOL.]

Henning, G. (1990). Interpreting test scores. In D. Douglas (Ed.), English language testing in U.S. colleges and universities (pp. 82-90). Washington, DC: NAFSA. Explains issues of reliability and validity in interpreting test scores. Will help those using test scores to measure proficiency make sure their interpretations are as accurate as possible.

Henrichsen, L. (1994). Conducting an ESL program self-study: 20 lessons from experience. TESOL Journal, 3(4), 8-13. Twenty recommendations to consider when undertaking a program self-study, based on the author's experiences at the ELI, Brigham Young University.

Hughey, J. (1990). ESL composition testing. In D. Douglas (Ed.), English language testing in U.S. colleges and universities (pp. 51-67). Washington, DC: NAFSA. Explores different methods of testing writing skills (direct vs. indirect) and takes an in-depth look at the MELAB writing test and the TWE to argue the need for appropriate tests for the skills examined.

Hussein, A. (1995). Preparation of administrators for English as a second language. TESOL Convention Program, 288. (Abstract No. 3102) Provides results of a study of the preparedness of ESL administrators; discusses how programs are preparing new administrators. [Audiorecording available from TESOL.]

Imamura, S. (1982). Student management. In R. P. Barrett (Ed.), The administration of intensive English programs (pp. 33-37). Washington, DC: NAFSA. Looks at issues in student management from an IEP perspective: failure to enroll, absenteeism, tardiness, homework and general rules of conduct. Offers parameters for each subject and suggestions for implementing policies.

Jenks, F. L. (1991). Designing and assessing the efficacy of ESL promotional materials. In M. C. Pennington (Ed.), Building better English language programs (pp. 172-188). Washington, DC: NAFSA. Discusses the types of promotional materials that IEPs can use, and offers suggestions for making them more effective.

Katz, R. L. (1974). HBR Classic: Skills of an effective administrator. Harvard Business Review, 52(5), 90-102. A very important article on administration and the skills needed to be an effective administrator. Perhaps the first article to break the skills into 3 categories: technical, human, & conceptual. The 1974 retrospective on the 1955 article focuses mainly on how the author has come to see a greater interrelationship between all the skills than before.

Kennedy, C. (1988). Evaluation of the management of change in ELT projects. Applied Linguistics, 9(4), 329-42. Relates concepts from innovation theory to the process of change within ELT Project Management. Captures the complexity of the theory and defines key roles people play in the process.

Larsen, D. (1990). A survey of curriculum items in intensive English programs. Journal of Intensive English Studies, 4, 47-57. The results of a survey looking at what IEPs include in their curriculums.

Longenecker, W. E. (1982). Incorporating English for special purposes programs into an on-going intensive program. In R. P. Barrett (Ed.), The administration of intensive English programs (pp. 57-67). Washington, DC: NAFSA. An example of incorporating an ESP program into the ELI at Oregon State University, from the perspective of the administrator's responsibilities.

Lynch, B. (1990). A context-adaptive model for program evaluation. TESOL Quarterly, 24(1), 23-42. This article introduces a 7-step program for evaluating language teaching programs, illustrating each step with examples from the University of Guadalajara's REST program (Reading English for Science and Technology), a model the author generalizes to other situations.

Madsen, H. S. (1990). Standardized ESL tests used in U.S. colleges and universities. In D. Douglas (Ed.), English language testing in U.S. colleges and universities (pp. 27-40). Washington, DC: NAFSA. Describes and evaluates standardized tests common in the U.S.: tests used for general admission, oral proficiency tests, and writing proficiency tests.

Marion, P. B. (1986). Research on foreign students at colleges and universities in the United States. In K. R. Pyle (Ed.), Guiding the development of foreign students (pp. 65-82). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Inc. Reviews research on foreign students at American colleges and universities. 10 pages of references at the end provide a good beginning for exploring this subject further.

Matthies, B. F. (1991). Administrative evaluation in ESL programs: How'm I doin'? In M. C. Pennington (Ed.), Building better English language programs (pp. 241-256). Washington, DC: NAFSA. Just as professors need to be reviewed for tenure, so, says this article, IEP directors need to be kept up-to-date through evaluation. By reflection and evaluation the director and staff can work to make the program better.

Matthies, B. F. (1984). The director's job skills in intensive English programs. American Language Journal, 2(1), 5-16. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 248 691) Describes a survey in which 177 IEP directors outline skills they feel essential to an effective IEP director. Directors' analyses of personal strong and weak points provide insight into the skills that directors feel they lack when taking on such positions. Also includes interesting demographics about respondents (gender, rank and highest degree held).

Mead, L., Davidson, J.O. & Hanna, M.E. (1986). Forecasting enrollment in intensive English programs. TESOL Newsletter, 20, 14-16. Suggests ways to use computers and database programs to help forecast student enrollment. Basically a summary of Davidson's article Forecasting enrollment in IEPs (in this bibliography).

Middlebrook, G. C. (1991). Evaluation of student services in ESL programs. In M. C. Pennington (Ed.), Building better English language programs (pp. 135-154). Washington, DC: NAFSA. Discusses the need to provide student services in an IEP, particularly on-going orientation, but also advising, employment, financial aid, housing, health services, and others.

Munsell, P. E. (1982). An ESL administrator looks at research. In R. P. Barrett (Ed.), The administration of intensive English programs (pp. 99-105). Washington, DC: NAFSA. Argues the importance of administrators being regularly involved in research; offers guidelines for executing research as well as possible research topics.

North, S. M. (1984). The idea of a writing center. College English, 46(5), 433-446. Discusses the role of a Writing Center in the university and the image problems and biases encountered from faculty, especially English department faculty. Related to IEPs in that the low status of Writing Centers on campus is similar to that of IEPs on university campuses.

Ochoa, C. B. (1994). AAIEP evaluates program self-appraisals. NAFSA Newsletter, 45(6), 32-33 & 48. Presents the efforts by AAIEP (American Association of Intensive English Programs) to begin standardization among IEPs by instituting self-appraisal procedures. The completion of such is now a requirement for membership in AAIEP, but an

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The Rationale and Method of Mary Gawienowski's IEP Administration: An Annotated Bibliography of Sources

The annotated bibliography published in the previous *IEP Newsletter* (Issue 12:3:: 4-5, 11-12) and continued here (pages 4-5, 10-12) grew out of an Independent Study (Fall 1994 and Spring 1995) focused on IEP Administration. It was in response to the absence of any extensive bibliography on the subject. Initially I only wanted to provide myself with a comprehensive listing of materials that I could apply to the second requirement of the Independent Study — a paper synthesizing the information and analyzing the type of research conducted in IEP administration. Thus, the annotations are at times notes focused on relevant themes instead of summaries. The bibliography was created without publication in mind as its primary function was to remind me of what I felt was important in each article.

Moreover, this bibliography is by no means exhaustive. While gathering information, I tried to balance the types of materials (books, articles, presentations, ERIC resources, etc.) with the focus of each item. The key categories focused on included accreditation, budget, the role of the director, and management theories, among others. I read most of the materials included or, in the case of presentations, attended the sessions, so the availability of items influenced their inclusion in the bibliography. In particular, items were excluded if unavailable from Indiana University of Pennsylvania's library. Trying to balance the topic areas by providing a reasonably equal number of articles for each category resulted in the exclusion of large numbers of articles in particular areas, for example, in testing and assessment. Selection was based in part on influence (articles that set standards or paved the way for later studies), on thoroughness, on representativeness, and, admittedly, on personal interest.

A few books in the bibliography deserve a special mention. They should be considered "classics," vital to any study of IEP administration. The first is Barrett's The administration of intensive English language programs. Although published in 1982 and now out of print, it still offers a well-rounded view of the field and shows how much has changed in just a little over a decade since its publication. It is a good place to start any reading in this field, and its influence is evident from how often later articles refer to it either within the text or in the bibliography. Another classic is Pennington's Building better English language programs, which not only complements Barrett's book but expands upon it. It is an important companion to Barrett because it offers a more recent view of the field. Finally, White's Management in English language programs clearly and effectively elucidates the managerial side of being an IEP administrator. This book is particularly important because most of the other materials fail to address the management concerns focused on herein. These three books are classics because of their comprehensive treatment of IEP administration, and because taken together they offer a very well-rounded introduction to IEP administration.

Thus, this bibliography, although originally created for my own academic purposes, has grown in concept and, hopefully, should now be of benefit to others interested in the field. It would be especially helpful for those who have little knowledge of IEP administration but want to learn more about it. Though not a complete listing of sources, it covers a wide range, and provides a good overview of what is available. Use it as a springboard, not as a stopping point, for, as the compilation of these materials have taught me, there is always more to discover.

If you have any questions or comments regarding the bibliography, please feel free to write me, Mary Gawienowski, at the American Language Institute, 214 Eicher Hall, IUP, Indiana, PA, 15705 or e-mail (LZHD@ GROVE, IUP. EDU).

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Using "True Friends" to Help Russian-speaking ESL/EFL Students Learn English More Rapidly

by

Paulina Bazin and Gina Macdonald

Using first-language cognates with English is a standard technique for helping beginner and intermediate level ESL/EFL students rapidly acquire useful, familiar vocabulary. Cognate dictionaries for French, German, and Spanish speakers, in particular, are readily available, and the techniques of cognate use in language learning have become a standard part of modern foreign language teaching. However, no such dictionary as yet exists for Russian-English though cognates are a vital connection between the two languages, and the use of cognates in ESL/EFL for teaching Russian-speakers is limited to teacher knowledge rather than textbook availablity. At the last TESOL conference in Long Beach, a group of teachers from Long Island University enthusiastically presented a two-page list of English-Russian cognates which they found invaluable in assisting their beginning-level students feel more comfortable moving from Russian into English. We propose that there are far more cognates in use than has been recognized in language teaching and that such Russian-English cognates can be a major learning tool for Russian-speaking students.

Historical borrowings from Western languages brought into Russian words that English had borrowed from similar sources or words that were actually English in origin. Some Russian-English cognates go all the way back to Indo-European roots; others, based on Greek and Latin roots, came in through the medieval Church (*apocalipse/apopkalipsis, apostle/apostol, evangelism/yevangelizm, patriarch/patriarkh, metropolitan/metropolit*). However, the greatest period of borrowing came in the eighteenth century with Peter the Great. What the Norman Conquest was to English, the rule of Peter the Great was to Russia. Peter the Great toured Western Europe to study Western life, customs, and mores, and returned to Russia to organize Russian life around Western models. The result was a rush of new ideas for which vocabulary did not exist. The translation of Western European scientific and non-scientific books on various practical problems revealed a paucity of Russian words needed to express ideas so translators simply Russianized, wherever possible, words from French, German, English and Dutch.

Throughout the eighteenth century Russian swelled with borrowings from abroad to accomodate the needs of the language, drawing mainly from French and Latin. As is normal with language growth, each time Russia renewed contact with the west and imported new ideas and new technologies, new vocabulary followed: to name new objects (*tractor/traktor, tank/tank, combine/kombin*) or concepts (*republic/respublika, exam/ekzamen*); to introduce an international terminology (*import/import, export /eksport*); to attempt to isolate a shade of meaning (*school / shkola* versus *studio/studiya*); and to be fashionable (*victory/viktoriya, resolve/rezolvovat*). Today there is once again an explosion of borrowings, so rapid that it is difficult to keep pace with the influx, particularly of technological, commercial, and everyday vocabulary taken primarily from American English. In sum, borrowing has been an ongoing process throughout Russian history with Russian cognates resulting from shared Indo-European roots, from borrowings of similar words from French, Spanish, German, and other languages, and from direct borrowings from English. Many of these words have direct parallels in English.

Despite thousands of words borrowed from English or from sources from which English has also borrowed, a majority of which correspond very closely to words in English, these might not be readily recognizable because of some differences in pronunciation, because of the Cyrillic alphabet, and because of Russian inflections/ grammatical endings, all of which require attuning one's perceptual skills for ready recognition. Place names and key terms in specialized fields suffer the same problem: familiar yet alien. Also, all cognates are not equal: some, like *restaurant/ restoran*, are immediately useful while others are far more esoteric or marginal. Furthermore, as studies with cognates in other languages indicate, the degree to which cognates may be recognized and understood depends on the context, on the age of the student, on vocabulary skills in the mother tongue, and on the amount of practice with cognates to promote recognition skills. In other words, the degree of perception and transfer between the two language systems depends on previously acquired knowledge and on the quality and flexibility of the individual's cognitive structure. Learners cannot be expected to know a priori that the Russian and English vocabularies share a vast number of words. However, as soon as students acquire the basic knowledge of the language (English script and sound-system), then their eyes and ears can be opened to cognates, and rapid progress in vocabulary building and reading skills is enhanced.

The knowledge that such cognates exist provides neophyte learners confidence and a sense that the new language is less formidable and more accessible than it might at first seem. The memory effort required by students to learn new vocabulary is greatly reduced by cognate study. While about 1500 words is the minimum needed for very basic communication and twice that number the very minimum for some degree of fluency in the language, to read novels and to reach the highest stages of language mastery requires 15,000 words or more. Cognate study is most valuable in promoting the vocabulary enrichment necessary to move from the minimum level to the highest level, for it promotes general comprehension, but also greatly broadens reading and recognition skills, and promotes the type of guesswork necessary for true and easy understanding. Dictionary use can be reduced to a minimum because students can learn to rely more on guesswork, thanks to cognates. Word-ending regularities like *-tion* (*–tsiya*) in *corporation* (*korporatsiya*), *demonstration* (*demonstratsiya*), *-or* (*–or*) like in *collector* (*kollektor*), *operator* (*operator*) etc. can be easily learned by students. The knowledge of key prefixes, roots, and suffixes facilitates reading without spending extra time on looking up words in the dictionary [suffixes - *graph /-graf* (*spektograf, fonograf, telegraf*), - *ism/-izm* (*kommunizm, praktitsizm*), *-logy/ -logiya* (*leksikologiya, paleontologiya*), *-phone/–fon* (*telefon, megafon*), *-scope/-skop* (*teleskop, mikroskop*)].

This cognate approach can be used with any other second language teaching methodology. Furthermore, even false friends, or words which look and sound like they should mean the same thing but do not, when called attention to, stick in the memory more easily, for example *magazine (magazin)*, which means "store" in Russian, or *decade* (*dekada*), which is ten days in Russian. Artificial languages like Esperanto promised to facilitate communication in international trade and technology but cognates are a much more practical and authentic way to achieve the same *lingua franca*.

Fears about the danger of students making up false cognates, of their requiring more phonetic instruction for cognates than for other vocabulary, and of spelling interference seem minor compared to the advantages: the psychological boost of seeing the familiar in the unfamiliar, promoting greater confidence, greater openness to learning, and more rapid vocabulary acquisition. Cognates provide a familiar base on which Russian speakers can build a wider reading and speaking knowledge of English. They open one's mind to the familiar and demonstrate the ancient ties that bind our cultures; at the same time, they give us a doorway into a new culture, a new world, a new view of reality.

The following is a useful sampling of English-Russian cognates — with the Russian transcribed into English script for easy reading.

park/park
parka/parka
parliament/parlament
parody/parodia
parodist/parodist
parquet/ parket
partisan/partizan
partner/partnuor
party/partiya
passenger/passazhier
passive/passivniy
passport/pasport
pastel/pastel
pasteurization/pasterizatsiya
pastor/pastor
pastoral/pastoralniy
pastrami/pastrami
patent/patent
paternalism/paternalizm
pathetic/pateticheskiy
pathological/patologicheskiy
pathos/pafos
patio/patio
patriarch/patriarkh
patriot/patriot
patriotism/patriotizm
patron/patron
patronage/patronazh
pause/pauza
pavilion/pavilion
pecan/pekan
pedagogue/pedagog
pedal/pedal
pedant/pedant
pediatrics/pediatriya
pedicure/pedikiur
pelican/pelikan
pellagra/pellagra
penalty/penalti
penguin/pengvin
pension/pensiya

For more information about English-Russian cognates and exercises for practicing them, please contact Paulina Bazin in Modern Foreign Languages or Gina Macdonald in the English Department, Loyola University, New Orleans, LA 70118 (FAX 504- 865-2294).

ANNOUNCEMENT

A Proposed Interest Section for Cross-Cultural Communication Issues

Interested members are doing the preliminary work to establish a new TESOL interest section focusing on cross-cultural issues related to our field. A formal petition will be submitted to the Central Office after the first of the year. We are currently looking for members to sign a petition agreeing to list their primary IS identification with this new (as yet unnamed) interest section. The circulated petition will include the proposed IS title and its statement of purpose. We are also looking for members who might be willing to collect the signatures of other interested members. If you would like to support this effort or have questions about the proposed cross-cultural IS, please contact Margaret Coffey.

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accrediting body is still needed.

Olson, G. A. & Ashton-Jones, E. (1988). Writing center directors: The search for professional status. Writing program administration, 12(1-2), 19-28. Presents results of 188 responses by freshman English directors to a questionnaire focusing on directing a writing center. The results showed that English directors see the primary goal of Writing Center directors as administrative, with little belief that scholarly work and teaching is part of the position. Author argues the importance of Writing Center directors being given equal status to freshman English directors.

Osburne, A. G. (1992). Situational leadership and innovation in the ESOL classroom. Journal of Intensive English Studies, 6, 51-60. This article applies the management theory of situational leadership to the ESL classroom as a way to classify the appropriate teacher response to student readiness to accept innovation and change.

Palmer, I. C. (1984). The ethics of test preparation at intensive English language programs (Report No. FL 014 587). (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 248 727) Looks at the function of the TOEFL test within IEPs, as well as at student and program attitudes towards TOEFL. The article seeks a balance between studying English and studying for exams, and offers advice on how each program can find the best balance.

Pankowski, M.L. & Maurice, K. (1986). Intensive English language programs: Continuing education's foreign cousin. The Journal of Continuing Higher Education, 34(2), 13-16. Compares IEPs with Continuing Education, especially similar problems with balancing quality of instruction with finances and with status in the academic community. Acknowledges differences such as cultural misunderstandings and dominant L1s in the IEP classroom.

Pennington, M. C. (Ed.). (1991). Building better English language programs. Washington, DC: NAFSA. A collection of articles by different authors on language programs (program & curriculum evaluation, student services, staff & faculty performance reviews). Perhaps, together with White's books, the most complete information about IEP administration available.

Pennington, M. C. (1984). Effective administration of an ESL program. In Larson, P., Judd, E.L. & Messerschmitt, D.S. (Eds.). On TESOL '84: A brave new world for TESOL. Washington, D.C.: TESOL. (Also available from ERIC, Document Reproduction Service No. ED 274 166) Good review of the general literature on administration; provides a clear outline of skills IEP administrators need to be effective in their role. Helpful examples of typical problems IEP administrators might face.

Pennington, M. C. (1983). ESL administrators and teachers: Getting together on the curriculum. TESOL Newsletter, 17, 30-31. Contrasts the personality and teaching approach of administrators with those of teachers to argue the need to take these differences into account when designing a curriculum, and the need for these two groups to work together to be effective.

Pennington, M. C. & Brown, J. D. (1991). Unifying curriculum process and curriculum outcomes: The key to excellence in language education. In M. C. Pennington (Ed.), Building better English language programs (pp. 57-74). Washington, DC: NAFSA. Presents a model for curriculum development consisting of needs analysis, objectives, testing, materials, teaching, and simultaneous evaluation.

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Pennington, M. C. & Young, A. L. (1991). Procedures and instruments for faculty evaluation in ESL. In M. C. Pennington (Ed.), Building better English language programs (pp. 191-227). Washington, DC: NAFSA. Reviews methods for faculty evaluation and recommends process for combining them to meet a program's specific needs.

Perdreau, C. (1994). Roles, responsibilities, and priorities of the intensive English program. Journal of Intensive English Studies, 8, 1-25. Gives a short history of IEPs and covers many areas pertaining to current issues affecting IEPs today, such as the role of IEPs, accreditation, and status in the academic community.

Pialorsi, F. (1994). Developing a course in language program administration. Journal of Intensive English Studies, 8, 87-91. Briefly describes the author's course in language program administration, including topics covered in the course and a list of readings, his intention to update the Barrett book, as well as areas the update will cover.

Ponder, R. & Powell, B. (1991). Creating and operating a statistical database for evaluation in an English language program. In M. C. Pennington (Ed.), Building better English language programs (pp. 155-171). Washington, DC: NAFSA. Discusses options in setting up statistical database systems for evaluative purposes as they relate to four different cases the authors present as typical

Pyle, K. R. (Ed.). (1986). Guiding the development of foreign students. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass. An excellent introduction to the status and role of international students in American higher education. Explains what the Foreign Students' Office of a university is involved with, and provides information to bridge the gap between IEPs and Foreign Student Offices. Is of particular value to the student services staff of an IEP.

Reasor, A. W. (1986). Dominant administrative styles of ESL administrators. TESOL Quarterly, 20, 338-343. Survey of ESL administrators (103 responded). Examines background and administrative styles of ESL administrators (2 instruments). Discusses how administrative style may characterize tasks most suitable to an administrator's personality and personal preferences.

Reiff, R. F. & Kidd, M. A. (1986). The foreign student and student life. In K. R. Pyle (Ed.), Guiding the development of foreign students (pp. 39-49). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Inc. Suggests that universities have prearrival and on-going orientation for the international student in addition to campus orientation. Offers ideas for intercultural exchange on campus among students (international fairs & talent shows, discussion groups, etc.)

Robinett, B. W. (1989). A central administrator's perspective. Journal of Intensive English studies, 3, 1-14.Personal reflections on switching from the role of teacher to administrator and what IEPs must do to retain their quality.

Roy, R. R. (1958). The Administrative Process. Baltimore, MD: The Johns Hopkins Press. A bit old, but offers a clear view of the administrative process. Best for those interested in where the present-day administrative format originated. A standard reference mentioned in several articles on this list.

Saltzer, M. G. (1982). The evaluation of an intensive English program. In R. P.Barrett (Ed.), The administration of intensive English programs (pp. 89-97). Washington, DC: NAFSA. Offers different perspectives from which to evaluate a program (students, administrators, etc.) and insight into what a program evaluation needs to review; raises questions but takes no stand on issues.

Schlessman-Frost, A. & Saunders, T. F. (1993). Freedom of inquiry in intensive English programs: Some ethical considerations. Journal of Intensive English Studies, 7, 95-98. This paper, part of a panel discussion at the Fourth Annual Roundtable of the Center for English as a Second Language, discusses the need to balance the desire of teachers to conduct research with the rights of the students to privacy.

Sheehan, J. H. (1982). The ESL learning laboratory. In R. P. Barrett (Ed.), The administration of intensive English programs (pp. 69-75). Washington, DC: NAFSA. Out-of-date because technology for educational purposes has made many gains in the interim 12 years. Only a minor portion is spent on CALL; most discussion focuses on the audio language lab. Raises some good points about how labs work in a language program and ways teachers can make use of a language lab.

Spaventa, L. J. & Williamson, J. S. (1991). Participatory placement: A case study. In M. C. Pennington (Ed.), Building better English language programs (pp. 75-97). Washington, DC: NAFSA.The authors use an actual language program as an example to address the problems in placement testing. Reducing test time and changing the oral interview format led to better placement decisions for this particular IEP.

Spees, E. C. & Spees, E. R. (1986). Internationalizing the campus: Questions and concerns. In K. R. Pyle (Ed.), Guiding the development of foreign students (pp.5-18). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Inc. The authors present a plan to model campuses after the UN and thus strive for cultural understanding. They also explain why and how a campus should internationalize.

Staczek, J. J. & Carkin, S. J. (1984). Intensive English program fit in traditional academic settings: Practice and promise. In Larson, P., Judd, E.L. & Messerschmitt, D.S. (Eds.). On TESOL '84: A brave new world for TESOL. Washington, D.C.: TESOL. (Also available from ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 274 187) Discusses where IEPs are and should be in the university, and examines the secondary status universities often afford IEPs and their faculty. Argues for higher education to recognize the status of international students in their institutions and to give the students and faculty who teach them equal status in the university.

Stoller, F. L. (1994). Change is inevitable, but innovation is desirable in intensive English programs. TESOL Matters, 4(4), 9. Summary of second part of author's IEP study. This part includes ideas taken from follow up interviews with three of the participating IEPs.

Stoller, F. L. (1992). Taxonomy of IEP innovations. Journal of Intensive English Studies, 6, 1-26.The author received 43 responses to a survey asking directors of IEPs to describe 2 major innovations they have successfully implemented in the last 5 years. This article categorizes and presents those innovations submitted by respondents.

Stoller, F. L. (1988). IEP administration: A place to begin in the literature. Journal of Intensive English Studies, 2(1), 1-14. Gives advice to administrators and others who desire to familiarize themselves with the literature available on IEP administration and administration in general.

Stoller, F. L. & Christison, M. A. (1994). Challenges for IEP administrators: Liaison with senior-level administrators and faculty development. TESOL Journal, 3(3), 6-20. Addresses problems IEP administrators may have with university administration and offers suggestions for smoother relations/contact; gives suggestions for faculty development.

Stover, A. D. (1993). Freedom of inquiry in the IEP environment. Journal of Intensive English Studies, 7, 92-94. (originally part of a panel discussion at the Fourth Annual Roundtable of the Center for English as a Second Language) Discusses the need for classroom-centered research to lend credibility to teachers' ideas and intuitions.

Stoynoff, S. (1993). Ethics and intensive English programs. TESOL Journal, 2(3), 4-6. Discusses some of the difficult ethical decisions facing IEP administrators, such as keeping student information confidential and balancing IEP advertisements with both enthusiasm and honesty.

Stoynoff, S. J. (1989). Successfully implementing educational change and innovation. Paper presented at the annual meeting of TESOL. San Antonio, TX. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 306775) Discusses problems instituting change in any educational organization, but with an emphasis on ESL organization. Provides much revealing and comprehensible background information on innovation theory; offers 10 suggestions for implementing change.

Taylor, B. P. (1982). Curriculum design and the selection of teaching materials. In R. P. Barrett (Ed.), The administration of intensive English programs (pp. 45-50). Washington, DC: NAFSA. Discusses issues involved in planning a total IEP curriculum including who the teachers are (ft/pt/new/trained), enrollment fluctuations, the philosophy of the program, and ways to either integrate or separate the language skills.

TESOL (1989). Statement of core standards for language and professional programs. TESOL. A set of standards for IEPs and other ESL services determined by the TESOL organization.

Thackaberry, M. D. & Liston, A. (1986). Recruitment and admissions. In K. R. Pyle (Ed.), Guiding the development of foreign students (pp. 29-37). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Inc. Offers stories of misrepresented programs and lack of preparation on the part of a university for the special needs of international students; expresses the need for all staff involved with international students to familiarize themselves with the special needs and requirements of international students.

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Intensive English Programs Newsletter

Volume 13, number 2, Spring 1996

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The Art of TESOL
1996

WHAT THE WORLD NEEDS NOW: ESL TEACHERS AND TECHNICAL COMMUNICATION

Emily Thrush, Director of Professional Writing, The University of Memphis

A Japanese company and an American company signed a major contract for the Japanese company to supply parts to the American company. In the contract meetings, the representatives of the two organizations agreed on a schedule of delivery times. Back in the U.S., the American manager got nervous about production deadlines as the first delivery date for the Japanese parts got nearer and nearer and no word was heard from Japan. Finally, the manager sent a fax to Japan saying, "We are expecting the first delivery of parts on April 16th, as agreed. Will the parts be shipped on schedule? Please respond." The Japanese responded that of course the parts would be shipped as agreed and that they were puzzled about the urgency of the fax (Andrews and Andrews).

What was going on here? Everybody involved in this situation was "fluent" in English — yet they weren't communicating.

All ESL teachers know that there's more involved in communication than simply knowing the vocabulary and syntax of a language. We remember the story about the 1st grade teacher who asked her class what color bananas were, but wouldn't accept the answers "brown" and "green" from students from Africa and South America, because she only knew about yellow bananas. But there are times when failing to communicate carries more serious consequences than a "wrong" answer in class. When your livelihood is on the line, you can't afford not to communicate clearly and accurately.

In ESL, we're used to working with students whose academic success depends, to some extent, on how well we teach them certain skills such as essay writing, note-taking and reading for understanding. In the past, we've given less thought to their career success, either because we believe that their skills in their native language will sustain them on the job, or because we forget the differences between academic and professional language. But there

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* * *

Newsletter Submission Guidelines

The *IEP Newsletter* solicits submissions on a continuing basis, twelve months a year. These may be announcements and exchanges, short entries (250 to 500 words) on effective teaching methods, problems of IEPs with tested solutions, discussions of teachers' rights and responsibilities, questions of unionization and so forth. Longer, more pedagogically oriented articles (550-1000 words) are also welcome. We encourage the exchange of opinions and ideas in response to published articles, with several authors taking different positions on the same concern or controversy. We solicit your ideas and materials.

The deadline for contributions to the next issue is May 30. Please send typed, double-spaced articles in hard copy as well as a high density disc in **any Macintosh** or linking format. Newsletter editors reserve the right to edit any material submitted for publication.

Through Our Eyes: An Invitation to Submit Student Papers

The editors of this newsletter are currently engaged in a project tentatively titled *Through Our Eyes* [Or *Through Our Eyes, In Our Voices*]: *Famous Personalities From Around the World Described in the Voices of their Own Young People.* You are invited to encourage your best students to submit papers for possible publication in a cross-cultural reader composed of short student essays on important political, social, and artistic figures from around the world. All essays will be in English but written by nationals of the country or culture in which the figure played a role. We plan to include essays representing all the continents and most major languages, with emphasis on figures from cultures/ countries which have contributed large numbers of immigrants to the U.S.

The essay should be a minimum of four paragraphs about an important historical figure from the student's country, state, or region. It should provide a short sketch of who she or he was and what she or he did that was important. Perhaps a simple statement that "______ is respected/ admired/ hated/ disliked by citizens of _______ for three key reasons: ______, ______, and _______," followed by an explanation of those reasons would be the most effective way of getting started.

The audience is American teenagers who have never heard of this person, who have only a vague idea about the writer's country, and who do not share the common knowledge, values, and assumptions of the writer. Thus, the writers must build in careful explanations for the audience, either direct ones that are part of the text or subordinate ones in the form of adjective clauses, appositives, synonyms, and so forth. There should be no words from the student's language, only English, so key quotations or battle cries and so forth should be translated into English.

Essays may be sent to the Macdonalds, English Dept., Loyola University, New Orleans, LA. 70118.

EDITORS' NOTE: **Given the number of requests for copies of "IEP Administration: A Bibliography of Sources" by Mary F. Gawienowski of the American Language Institute of Indiana University of Pennsylvania, the TESOL Field Service representative Ann Walker Kerwin has kindly agreed to make copies available for those wanting it. She may be reached at 1600 Cameron Street, Suite 300, Alexandria, Virginia 22314-2751, (703) 836-0774 (W), (703) 836-7864 (FAX), e-mail tesol@TESOL.EDU or walker @tesol.edu.**

—continued from page 12 French Students

who, like many Europeans, often take exams only at the end of 1 year or 2 years of study, prepare at their own speed, choose to attend class or not, and often never speak personally to a professor. Simply recounting the differences to French students is often met with incredulity, but the power of peer knowledge and experience can be compelling.

Since French students respond poorly to ordinary American ESL classroom strategies, the most effective method of integrating French students into the classroom is to encourage interaction with culturally diverse groups (especially small, intimate ones) in readings, discussions, and activities that force them to break through cultural barriers and look with new eyes.

Report on Accreditation Advisory Committee

by Jim Hamrick,

Saginaw Valley State University, Michigan

TESOL's Accreditation Advisory Committee (AAC), charged by the Board of Directors with developing a program of accreditation of Intensive English Programs, has been meeting since last July and is currently drafting standards for the accreditation program. Rough drafts of standards for facilities, equipment, supplies, curriculum, and faculty have been written. In future meetings the AAC will deal with standards related to fiscal policies, administration, and student services. Once all standards have been drafted, the AAC will make the draft standards available to the IEP community before developing final standards.

TESOL's plan to develop an accreditation program was the logical conclusion of two years of work by a TESOL Task Force. The task force found that a majority of IEPs welcomed the concept of TESOL Accreditation, in that there is currently no accreditation for IEPs that is conducted by an ESL organization or any other professional or scholarly association. While the primary purpose for any accreditation program is improvement of educational quality, IEPs have an additional need for accreditation: in order to receive INS approval to grant I-20 documents, IEPs must be accredited by a DOE-recognized accrediting agency. As a result, the AAC has consulted with the DOE and the INS in developing standards.

The AAC welcomes input from all interested parties. Comments may be given to any of the committee members listed below. Or, comments may be sent to Terry O'Donnell at TESOL Central Office.

The AAC will hold an open meeting at TESOL '96 in Chicago. The AAC will provide up-to-date information about its activities, and it will receive input and suggestions from the audience. The meeting will be held on Thursday, March 18, 6-8 PM.

Standards being developed by the committee will be written so as to include threshold, or minimum requirements for programs to be accredited. The standards will also include statements which will serve as models for program development. In developing draft standards, the committee examined documents of two model accreditation programs, NCATE and AICS, and considered the standards published by eight different ESOL organizations (e.g. AAIEP, UCIEP, British Council, TESOL).

In addition to the development of standards, the AAC will be developing the processes for conducting accreditation. This will include setting up an organizational structure, developing policy, training site-review teams, and designing a pilot accreditation program. TESOL is covering the cost of the program development. TESOL has sought financial support from a number of organizations which have an interest in IEP accreditation. The accreditation program will ultimately be a self-supporting operation. Revenues will be generated through fees paid by programs which undergo accreditation.

TESOL has also formed an Employment Standards Task Force, which recently published a set of proposed IEP Employment Standards. While the AAC's mission is distinct from that of the Task Force, the AAC will consider the Task Force's recommendations as the AAC continues to develop standards for faculty and administration.

Committee members are Paul Angelis, Janet Constantinides, Sandy Hagman, Jim Hamrick, Mary Jerome, Judy Paiva, Judy Judd Price, Sherry Schneider, Rosslyn Smith, Michael Steadman, and Malcolm Watson. The committee is working with Marti Burns, a consultant with extensive experience in design of accreditation programs.

For further information, contact Jim Hamrick through
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Saginaw Valley State University
7400 Bay Road
University Ctr. MI 48710
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--continued from page 1
ESL Teachers & Technical Communications

is an increasing call for specific skills in scientific and technical communication coming from all around the world. Writing the expository essay no longer satisfies the needs of the student who wants to major in computer science or the professional who wants to communicate better on the job or the people in a non-English-speaking country who want to enter the international community.

How important is communication in English to international business, science and technology? More than 30,000 U.S. companies export products abroad (Lathan 16); for many these exports are responsible for 25-50% of the company's total sales (Sprung 71). Export sales make up twice as large a part of the Gross National Product as they did just 20 years ago, and the possibilities for future growth in this area are good (Limaye and Victor 277). In 1992, the European Economic Community became an enormous consumer market — twice the size of Japan, and larger even than the U.S. in the amount of goods used (Klein 159). In Europe now, 19 of the 30 top selling software packages are made in the U.S. The complex rules of the EEC require that documentation for all products shipped across national boundaries be in the language of the producing country, the language of the receiving country, and one other: in most cases, one of those languages will be English.

The workforce in the U.S. is no longer monolingual and unicultural either. The number of companies located in the U.S. but foreign-owned has increased rapidly. 300,000 Americans work for Japanese-owned companies alone (Haight 1). Most of those companies supply some management and technical staff who are natives of the country of ownership.

Conversely, the number of people from various language and cultural backgrounds working for American companies is also growing. A study done by the Hudson Institute for the U.S. Department of Labor estimated that by the year 2000, 29% of the workforce would be made up of people who had moved here from other countries. Figures from the U.S. Census Bureau show that the fastest growing segment of the American population is immigrants from various parts of Asia — an increase of 107.8% between 1980 and 1990. The second fastest growing group was the Hispanic population — 53% in the last ten years ("Changing"). Clearly, then, the ability to communicate across cultures is becoming vital to our students, whatever their future endeavors may be.

All of this internationalization of business has, of course, produced a greater need for people who are bi- or multi-lingual. The very fact of being skilled in English will unquestionably be an asset to our students. But the fluency that enables them to live and study in the U.S. may not be enough to ensure success on the job. For example, one American elevator company found itself installing Korean-made escalators in Mexico. American engineers were doing the installation; Mexican engineers and technicians would later be doing the maintenance and repair. In the contract for purchasing these escalators, the elevator company had carefully included a clause requiring the Korean manufacturer to provide them with an English translation of the installation and maintenance instructions. They discovered, however, that these instructions were organized so differently that their engineers found the instructions impossible to use. Technical writers at the home office frantically rewrote the manuals, faxing each page as they finished it to Mexico so the engineers could proceed with the next steps. Eventually they had to produce yet another version of the manuals for use by the Mexican engineers who maintained the escalators — still in English (Gillespie).

So just what do we know about how business and technical communications are different across cultures? We have to look for help from various fields of research, including linguistics, anthropology, and sociology. Some of the factors that affect the ability of a writer or speaker to communicate with an audience include:

- differences in world experience
- differences in expectations of shared knowledge
- the hierarchical structure of society and work place
- differences in rhetorical strategies
- cognitive differences that affect the processing of text and graphics.

Differences in World Experience

I once had a student in a linguistics class who had been teaching English as a Second Language to Navaho children. The children seemed to be making good progress in their reading skills, so she was dismayed when they all scored poorly on a standardized reading test. When she went over the questions with them, she found the problem. One of the questions read, "Johnny's mother went to the refrigerator. There was no milk in the refrigerator. She gave Johnny a dollar. Johnny put on his coat and went out the door. Where did he go?" The "correct" answer was "to the store" to buy some milk. All the Navaho children, however, chose the answer "to the backyard" because that's where their families kept the cows! I always remember this story as an example of how we're not always testing what we think we're testing, but it's also an example of how a writer's assumptions that everyone experiences the world the same way can result in failing to include vital information.

Technical and business communications often depend heavily on the use of analogies to explain how systems work. One software manual compared some of the processes performed to the activities in an aerobics center. When the software was marketed internationally, however, it was discovered that the analogy was meaningless in countries that didn't have aerobics centers, and didn't understand the concept of paying money to get exercise (Sprung 74).

Pictures are also often used to try to avoid the misunderstandings common with language, but people who use pictures often assume, mistakenly, that objects look the same all over the world. One of the most well-known examples of a picture that turned out to be a problem for international marketing is the trashcan icon on the Macintosh computer. Wastebaskets don't always look like the metal can with a lid that we recognize; they are much more likely to be woven baskets, wider at the top than the bottom (Sukivariya and Moran 199). Another example is the software package that used a mailbox with the flag up to signal that the user had received electronic mail. A much more universally recognizable symbol is the envelope, which is now used by most computer programs (del Galdo 6). And when Microsoft tried to sell Quicken, a financial management package, in Europe, they had to find a symbol to replace the check, familiar in the U.S., but far less common and less recognizable in France (*Economist* 77).

Differences in Expectations of Shared Knowledge

Anthropologists place cultures on the scale below:

High Context — Low Context

In a high context culture, most people have the same

- religion
- education
- ethnic or national background
- values
- attitudes.

That means that they usually have the same information and think the same way about things. They can safely assume that other people in their culture think the same way they do. In a low context culture, however, people are very different in all of those ways listed above, so they may have very different knowledge and beliefs about all areas of life.

High context culture members, in addition to sharing information and values, tend to identify with the group, avoid confrontation, work for agreement and the good of the group, and often prefer oral communication to written. Low context members, on the other hand, tend to work for individual goals, see confrontation and competition as necessary for conducting business, and prefer written communication. The United States is clearly a low context culture, while Japan is often cited as one of the best examples of a high context culture. The educational system there is standardized throughout the nation, little ethnic or religious variation exists, and values are not only shared but explicitly taught in the schools.

There are, of course, individual and other differences that affect an individual's communication style. For example, research on how American women and men communicate suggests that women are more likely to avoid confrontation than men (Tannen), despite the fact that both belong to a low context culture. Still, when contrasts are made between cultures, differences are often marked.

The situation described at the beginning of this

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A NAFSA WORKSHOP

Fostering Common Ground: The Strategic Relationship Between the Intensive English Program and ESL Teacher Preparation Programs

A Workshop for Intensive English Program Administrators and Teacher Preparation Faculty Organized by NAFSA's Field Service and the University of Arizona, with Funding from the U.S. Information Agency

Effective English-as-a-Second Language (ESL) instruction is essential in preparing and orienting international students for academic study in the United States. As ESL programs have grown and developed over the years to meet student needs, so have teacher training programs. In most cases, a Master's degree in the Teaching of English as a Second Language (MATESL) is now the minimum credential that new teachers must hold to enter the field. While the profession of ESL teaching has matured, differences exist between the content of teacher preparation programs and the skills and knowledge that ESL program directors see as necessary for new teachers to work effectively in the classroom. Greater discussion and collaboration is needed between both sides to bridge these differences.

This workshop will focus on this issue by bringing together ESL teacher training faculty and directors of ESL programs from campuses across the country to look at the classroom and experiential components of teacher preparation programs, the expectations and needs of ESL administrators who employ graduates of these programs, and ongoing training and professional development activities that new teachers need as they enter their profession. The University of Arizona's Center for ESL, which is known nationally for its research and publication on English-language teaching issues, will serve as the host and organizer for the workshop.

DATES: April 18-20, 1996
LOCATION: University of Arizona, Tucson
WORKSHOP FEE: $125 (See above)

NAFSA's Field Service has Travel Grants to help you with transportation costs to and from the workshop site. The workshop fee includes materials and several group meals. Although it does not include housing, moderately priced accommodations are available for workshop participants. To request further information, as well as workshop registration materials, contact **Elizabeth Bell at NAFSA** (202/ 462-4811).

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ESL Teachers & Technical Communications

article illustrates the communication problems between high and low context cultures. The Japanese take oral communications and face-to-face meetings more seriously than do Americans. For them, the oral agreement reached was binding and final. There was no need for follow-up paperwork or reiterations of deadlines. The managers of the U.S. company, on the other hand, needed continued reassurance that matters were proceeding on the agreed-upon schedule, and they needed this reassurance in writing.

A few years ago, I acted as liaison between a Summer Institute in Languages in the Czech Republic and Americans who were interested in attending. I sent out application forms, which were returned directly to the University in Pilsen. A few months before the start of the Institute, I started getting frantic phone calls from the Americans. Used to the constant stream of written communications from American businesses, they couldn't understand the lack of information they were receiving from the Czechs. Even when I assured them that I had been in e-mail contact with the school and that they were expected and had housing waiting in Pilsen, they were not placated. They wanted something in writing, something that would seem legally binding to them (despite the fact that they really would have had no legal recourse anyway had they arrived in Pilsen and found that they had no place to stay). The fact that they were dealing with a reputable university and with people who had prior experience with the Institute was not sufficient. One applicant went so far as to send a check because she could not believe that a place would be reserved without payment, despite the fact that the application specifically said that the Czech uni-

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Predictable Problems:

Understanding French Student Reactions to ESL Programs,

by **Patrick Perrin, Tulane University**
and Lisbeth Philip,
TriMart Translation and Interpreting Services

Both Patrick Perrin and Lisbeth Philip learned English in American IEPs. Patrick is from Tours, France and his wife Lisbeth, though Venezuelan, studied in the University of Belle Beille, France.

A general feeling among the French is that the American educational system involves a lot of unnecessary spoon-feeding, and the French, considering themselves very resourceful, interpret this negatively: spoon-feeding is more a put-down than a help. Understanding this assumption behind French education and culture will enable the instructor to better understand French students in the ESL class.

The French do not like to be overprotected or controlled in the classroom since neither approach is an acceptable teaching strategy in their culture. Moreover, some French students formerly in ESL programs express their concern that their American instructors neglect an important aspect of classroom learning: the fact that they are dealing with adults, not children. In fact, some complain that their ESL instructors treated them in a childish fashion that eventually discouraged them from continuing in the IEP programs they had entered. According to one, the problem was not in the content but in the form: "Our instructor wanted us to play games and always talked to us as if we were infants; I learned English, but I really didn't like the approach that was used." Another ESL student from France added this comment: "In France the students adapt themselves to the professor; here the professors adapt themselves to the students, and they treat us like kids." This person added that the approach used by her instructor was geared to a "how to" approach, which had a practical side to it, but, at the same time, lacked insight and depth. They both agreed that the pace was too slow and that, from their perspective, the role of the instructor was mainly to entertain the students. Others suggested that the instruction could be improved if the students were encouraged to explore ideas more and to be more resourceful.

The French education system is based on what the French refer to as "bourrage de crane" (literally, "stuffing the skull"). This means that cramming is an essential part of education. Its purpose is to make students learn as much information as possible about everything, rather than targeting particular skills or approaches. The number of courses French students take is at least twice as many as a regular student in the United States, leading to a more accelerated pace of instruction but also a much more complex one (due to the need to schedule study/workload time and to integrate subjects). Competition to access higher education is very fierce, and therefore the students must keep up with the fast-paced instruction in order to succeed. A good professor would never deign to slow down class simply because a few students failed to understand a lesson, and the better students would be insulted if he did. French professors regard students as adults and treat them as such, and their personal rapport will be very limited for the most part or even nonexistant. Professors expect students to be mature enough to be responsible for absorbing and applying the lessons and instruction the professors provide.

The French are very proud of their cultural heritage, and this pride will inevitably find expression among students in the ESL classroom. It can be appealing to some Americans, but others will interpret it as very chauvinistic, and may be tempted to undercut such chauvinism in the classroom, another sore point for French students in American programs. Where Americans will try to avoid political controversy, particularly if it involves heated argumentation in the classroom, the French revel in controversy and expect even a language class to include heated discussions of politics, literature, and religion. Furthermore, complaint comes naturally to French lips, and their natural enthusiasm for lively discussions will lead them to open and uninhibited complaint, that, though meant as stimulating verbal combat, too often, American teachers may take personally. In fact, quite often, the French students complaint or lively attack will be a learned classroom ploy for challenging the teacher and for eliciting a more valuable learning experience.

The American teacher who is unable to adjust to this very different cultural learning style will feel uncomfortable or worse, and neither teacher nor student will benefit.

RESPONSE:
Ensuring French Student Participation in the ESL Classroom
by Ellen Kocher Plaisance
University of New Orleans

Ellen Kocher attended elementary school and part of Lycee in France, spent her junior semester abroad in France, and holds a BA and MA in French. She has been teaching ESL for 12 years.

A friend recently complained of the cold welcome she received while touring Paris and stated she felt she had been snubbed because she was American. My words of comfort were to tell her that, in truth, the French treat each other the same way; in French there is only one word to mean foreigner and stranger: *etranger*. In France, hospitality is for personal friends, not strangers. Friends address each other by their first names, and use the personal "you" pronoun *tu*. Besides friends, only children of elementary school age are allowed to be addressed in this manner. She wasn't being snubbed, I told my friend, she was just trying to cross a social line which is not to be crossed, from the side of formal, impersonal, official "correct" behavior, to a helpful, friendly personal style, one she, as a stranger, should not expect to encounter.

Perhaps, therefore, the other side of the coin, the attitudes expressed by Mr. Perrin and Ms. Philips, should be no surprise, and, in fact, French young people frequently find our American style of communicating presumptuous in its friendliness and condescending in its helpfulness. French students with little English who attend classes requiring them to discuss personal topics and to participate in undignified games with complete strangers may find the situation unbearable. However, if there is no culturally acceptable way for the American language teacher to approach French students, the teacher is left with an equally frustrating situation. How can a teacher draw French students into the "childish" game activities we find so effective for encouraging beginning level students to speak, and how can a teacher prepare them for social and academic success in an American university, where cultural and social rules will not be changed just for them?

One helpful approach is, whenever possible, to place the French students into a group of student peers from other cultures and then set up class situations that involve much interactive participation, because, with time, the classmates will bring peer pressure to bear to assure French student participation. For example, when students from my beginners class participated in a picture presentation of their families, a young French student, the youngest in a group of four with three friendly South Americans, all his seniors, claimed to have no pictures. The others expressed shock that he would travel so far without any family photographs, made him the center of class speculation and concern, and would not be satisfied with his passivity. After a week of gentle teasing, the pictures suddenly materialized, and he methodically discussed each relative. This particular student, desirous of traditional French modes of learning, teacher-student distance, and classroom formality, had spent the first three weeks sitting silently in class, insulated by a self-made cultural cocoon that shut out what he saw as unfamiliar and "silly," responding only when addressed personally, and staring in amazement, often mouth open, at his classmates, who asked questions with difficulty, but also with great enthusiasm and laughter and little concern about personal dignity. However, the class format ensured that they would ask him questions directly, involve him in activities, and not let him stay separate and alone. As teacher, I made myself the onlooker, answering questions when asked, facilitating and enouraging discussion, organizing games and activities clearly labeled "grammar practices," but leaving the weight of discussion, direction and activities with the students (for instance, they organized their own pot luck lunch to which they all contributed). Small groups naturally require intimacy, and a group of self assured, friendly peers who did not worry about appearances, and the absence of fellow

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ESL Teachers & Technical Communications

versity had no way to cash American checks and requested payment in travelers' checks on arrival. The discomfort continued during the first weeks at the Institute. No maps or directions for using the transportation system or information about nearby shops and grocery stores were distributed. Instead, the Czechs escorted us to every place we needed to go until we knew our way around. Even though the Americans had every need filled, the lack of paper documents clearly disturbed them. When we explained the higher value of oral transmission of knowledge in a high context culture, the Americans could understand it intellectually, but were not comforted emotionally.

This illustrates what happens to members of a low context culture when they encounter members of a high context culture. From the high context point of view, low context members seem to be somewhat dense, wanting everything spelled out in detail. If the communication originates from the low context side, it often seems to be insulting to the intelligence of the high context receiver, giving details that any knowledgeable reader would already know.

In Japan, for example, communication is often writer-centered. The reader is expected to work at getting the meaning from it. American business letters, then, in their simple language and detailed information, seem to be condescending, designed for a person of lower intelligence or knowledge. Look at this example from an American business letter, sent from an insurance company to someone who has just bought a new car:

> Enclosed is the application on your new Nissan Altima. Please sign this at the bottom where indicated in yellow, and return the form to our office with a check for $60.17. A stamped return envelop is enclosed for your convenience.

Why does the reader need such specific instructions? Because every business does things differently; every form looks different. In nations where business documents are standardized, everyone knows what to do with them, and instructions are unnecessary.

The Hierarchical Structure of the Society and Workplace

In business writing classes, we spend a great deal of time on tone: how to establish and maintain an appropriate tone, especially in correspondence. But appropriateness of tone is very cultural-specific. The directness and friendliness of much American correspondence can be offensive to people from societies where differences in rank, age, and status are reflected in oral and written communication. The desired tone in American business correspondence directly results from current management theories which emphasize democratic structures in the workplace such as participative management, networking, and suggestion boxes. Many U.S. companies pride themselves on the lack of distance between management and employees. In other cultures, however, that distance is very important.

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ANNOUNCEMENT

A Proposed Interest Section for Cross-Cultural Communication Issues

Interested members are doing the preliminary work to establish a new TESOL interest section focusing on cross-cultural issues related to our field. A formal petition will be submitted to the Central Office after the first of the year. We are looking for members to sign a petition agreeing to list their primary IS identification with this new (as yet un-named) interest section. The circulated petition will include the proposed IS title and its statement of purpose. We are also looking for members who might be willing to collect the signatures of other interested members. If you would like to support this effort or have questions about the proposed cross-cultural IS, please contact Margaret Coffey.

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In Japanese business letters, politeness and formality reflect the verticality of Japanese business. The Japanese language uses particles and three levels of honorific diction to establish and maintain distance between the writer and the reader (Haneda and Shima). This is quite different from the American letter, where the goal is frequently to reduce that difference.

In France and many other countries, first names are seldom used between business and professional acquaintances. Organizers of international conferences have learned not to use the kind of name tags common at American conferences, with the first name featured in large letters, the last name below and smaller because it is offensive to members of many cultures for people they don't know well to address them by their first names.

The more elaborate greetings and endings on letters (the classic reference to the cherry blossoms in Japan and closings such as "with greatest respect") is another way in which the formality of relationships is reflected.

Differences in Rhetorical Strategies

An area of linguistics called contrastive rhetoric studies similar texts in different languages to see how they differ in such aspects as organization, style and other rhetorical strategies. Most of the research into contrastive rhetoric has been done on either freshman composition-type essays or business letters. Here's a sampling of the information we have from contrastive rhetoric about documents in different cultures:

- In France, business documents such as proposals and reports tend to include more detailed information, statistics, and technical specifications in the body of the text than do American documents. On the other hand, business correspondence may include few details. Business transactions are often based on trust developed through long-term relationships between companies, so correspondence can use the kind of "short-hand" commonly found in communications between individuals who know each other well (Hall and Hall 23).

- German documents tend to include considerable elaboration on the history of the organizations and their business relations (Hall and Hall 35).

- Some cultures, including the Japanese, often prefer a narrative organization in business documents, which can place the main point of the text near the end rather than at the beginning as is preferred in U.S. business documents (Haneda and Shima).

- Japanese writing tends to be writer-oriented (that is, designed to express the thoughts and feelings of the writer) while U.S. writing is reader-oriented (that is, with emphasis placed on the needs and wants of the reader). Chinese writing may be changing from writer-oriented to reader-oriented (Hinds). Traditional Chinese texts of all kinds use extensive imagery (Jie and Lederman) and discourage the intrusion of the individual (Shen).

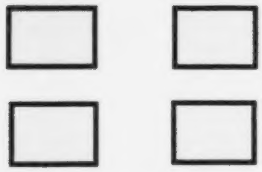
- Many cultures, including the French (Hall and Hall 103-104) and some African cultures (Boiarsky), value sophisticated, complex linguistic structures as reflective of a high level of education and competence in their fields. The short, simple sentences often favored by Americans may be viewed in these cultures as the product of carelessness or ignorance.

- Writing in Middle Eastern cultures traditionally does not focus on cause and effect relationships as much as writing in Western cultures (Leibman-Kleine).

- What counts as evidence to prove a point or to persuade varies from culture to culture: repetition and citation of authority in the Middle East (Leibman-Kleine), appeals to the emotion in Latin cultures (Hall and Hall).

Cognitive Differences that Affect the Processing of Text and Graphics

Technical experts, such as engineers, often assume that graphic images convey information accurately regardless of the language or culture of the reader. Research shows, however, that members of some cultures process 3 tone drawings (with shading) better than line drawings or photos, though Americans tend to be able to get more information from the line drawings. Also, in some cultures, a series of events is represented in a different order than is common in the U.S. For example, if four pictures in a sequence of events are arranged as shown on the next page,



we would read the top row from left to right, then the second row from left to right. But in some cultures, they would be scanned in circular motion, either clockwise or counterclockwise.

Also surprising to many writers who use color to carry meaning in their documents, colors may have different connotations in different cultures. An American writer of a technical manual, for example, would use red to indicate danger if a warning is not followed. In some cultures, however, green is the color for danger. Similarly, a blue ribbon used to indicate that a product is the best of its kind would be less effective in England where red ribbons are given for first place, blue for second. Colors can also evoke different feelings in the reader, depending on their typical use in the culture (del Galdo 7), and ambiguity in images may be better tolerated by some cultures than is typical of Americans (Heba).

What Does This Mean to the ESL Teacher?

In the process approach to teaching writing, audience analysis is an important component. Knowledge of the audience allows the writer to make choices of vocabulary, sentence structure, content, format, and graphics. The cultural background of the intended reader is another factor in analyzing an audience. Writers, particularly writers who will more than likely be writing for multicultural audiences (which includes everyone these days), need to be aware of the kinds of cultural differences that exist among audiences, how those differences affect the communication process, and how to gather information for an accurate, thorough audience analysis.

You can raise your students' awareness of these differences in several ways. A first step is to ask students from different ethnic and national backgrounds to discuss how business and technical communications take place in their cultures. Several of the sources cited at the end of this article contain examples of writing in other cultures. You can use these examples to show students how to analyze documents for culturally variable features such as levels of formality, relationship of writer to reader, tone, organization, diction, and level of detail. You might also have them write to the consulate offices of various countries for information, then analyze the responses. Advanced students might be interested in researching some of the published material in the fields of anthropology, sociology and linguistics that pertain to cross-cultural communications.

Most importantly, try to include country or culture designation of audience in your writing assignments. Only by encouraging students to think of culture as an integral part of communication can we help them "bridge the gaps" and be successful in an increasingly international and multicultural world.

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the absence of fellow countrymen looking on and judging him, wore down his resistance. It was 3 weeks before he participated in grammar games, asked questions in class and led group dictation practice during the break time. However, once he made the breakthrough, aided in part by witnessing the success of his classmates, it was complete. In other words, while including traditional exercises makes French students feel comfortable and assures them that they are learning, doing only traditional exercises means that they have imposed their way on a class because it is familiar to them but have missed the benefit of another and perhaps more effective way of learning. Using peer pressure to ensure group participation is an effective way to deal with refusals to participate in learning activities simply because they seem unfamiliar.

Useful strategies include the following:

1) Debate, particularly when team members come from cultures where verbal argumentation is acceptable, can be engaging and challenging. Teams of mixed composition give the French students an opportunity to shine, while accompanying intonation practice can teach French students how to discuss and disagree without sounding disagreeable. Teaching students to begin a sentence with "I think," or "actually" rather than "no" can make their arguments more acceptable in the American classroom, and to fellow international students.

2) Readings and discussions that demonstrate historical and sociological reasons for American friendliness and helpfulness to strangers during the great push West appeal to French nationalism, while authentic materials, such as restaurant menus, appeal to French practicality.

3) Writing assignments based on films or other concrete manifestations of cultures in interaction provide indirect lessons and a good outlet for self-expression, and allow the teacher to respond on paper with great authority.

4) Student presentations, interpretations of poems from their countries, and discussions of family traditions, greeting styles, and university differences enable the teacher to deal with controversial differences without being accused of teaching U.S. propaganda.

5) Class discussions of differences in university entrance requirements, exam schedules, exam styles, and rules for teacher-and-student interaction will raise new ideas for French students,

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Intensive English Programs Newsletter

Volume 13, number 3. Summer, 1996

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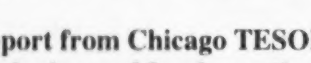

PREDICTABLE PROBLEMS

Student Profiles: Chinese Students in the ESL Classroom

Elisabeth Gareis, Baruch College/ CUNY
and
Nancy Heiges, University of Georgia

ESL teachers can benefit tremendously from being familiar with the linguistic and cultural background of their students. As part of a series on cultures commonly represented in U.S. ESL classrooms, facets of Chinese culture related to language learning and teaching are described below.

Pronunciation

The Chinese language is spoken in a number of vastly different dialects, the two most commonly encountered among students in the U.S. being Mandarin and Cantonese. Depending on the dialect background of the learner, a variety of pronunciation problems may occur. The following are among the most common (Chang, 1987).

1) Since English has more vowel contrasts than Chinese, some distinctions (e.g., "leave" vs. "live") may require special effort.
2) The consonant /v/ is absent from most Chinese dialects and is often replaced by /w/ or /f/ (as in "inwite" for "invite").
3) Many Chinese dialects do not have an /n/; Chinese speakers therefore often substitute /l/ for /n/ (as in "light" for "night").
4) Among Cantonese speakers, the /r/ vs. /l/ distinction is difficult and may lead to sound confusions (e.g. "read" vs. "lead").
5) The voiced and voiceless "th" sound does not occur in Chinese and is often replaced by /s/, /t/, or /f/ (e.g., "sink" for "think").

In addition to specific interference problems, Chinese ESL students often experience difficulty in articulating final consonants and consonant clusters. "White rice" may therefore sound like "why rye," and "spoon" like "sipoon." Most prominently affected by this

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Newsletter Submission Guidelines

The *IEP Newsletter* solicits submissions on a continuing basis, twelve months a year. These may be announcements and exchanges, short entries (250 to 500 words) on effective teaching methods, problems of IEPs with tested solutions, discussions of teachers' rights and responsibilities, questions of unionization and so forth. Longer, more pedagogically oriented articles (550-1000 words) and bibliographies are also welcome. We encourage the exchange of opinions and ideas in response to published articles, with several authors taking different positions on the same concern or controversy. We solicit your ideas and materials.

Deadlines for contributions to particular issues are May 30, September 15, and January 15th (though convention information will be accepted down to the wire). Please send typed, double-spaced articles in hard copy as well as a high density disc in **any Macintosh** or linking format. Newsletter editors reserve the right to edit any material submitted for publication to enhance clarity or style and to shorten submissions to fit available space. However, authors will be consulted if changes are substantial.

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LATE NEWS: IEP Chair Teresa Ross reports that the TESOL IEP Interest Section has received more proposals for the Orlando convention than any other TESOL interest section.

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SPECIAL EMPHASIS FOR THE NEXT ISSUE: WHICH FILMS ARE APPROPRIATE FOR THE IEP CLASSROOM?

We are soliciting papers on using film in the IEP classroom. Issues to be discussed:

1. Which kinds of film are appropriate and why?
2. How should film be used?
3. Which films should be avoided? Why?
4. What kinds of approaches should be avoided? Why?

In a world culture increasingly affected by videos and VCRs, the IEP classroom (if TESOL conventions reflect practice) remains primarily speech and print oriented. While this emphasis is understandable, many video enthusiasts feel the visual medium has been underutilized and poorly integrated into existing classroom pedagogies.

Film offers a stable means of utilizing the sometimes quickly dated video medium, but presents problems of its own, problems of format (most feature films are too long), of cultural appropriateness (some films are deadly fare for international students), of use (as models of speech and behavior? how should they be applied?), and of utility (how much class time is this film worth?).

We solicit reactions and solutions to these problems and challenges.

If you have enjoyable and effective classroom-tested learning activities to share with your IEP colleagues, please send them to the editors of this newsletter, both on hard copy and disk, at the above address.

Experiencing Reality: University Class Observation for IEP Students

Karen M. Heller and Gina Macdonald,
Loyola University, New Orleans

OVERVIEW: Advanced-level IEP students anxious to enter university classes can benefit from a dose of reality provided by the opportunity to observe regular academic classes. The experience provides students proud of their progress and confident of their listening/comprehension skills an opportunity to test that progress and those skills against the more challenging requirements of the college classroom. The experience usually results in students understanding how much more they need to learn, and teachers experiencing the joys of more highly motivated students, chastened by an awareness of their true limitations. Furthermore, if handled well, the experience will assist students in targeting problem areas for special emphasis in the ESL classroom. Overall, the experience provides an interesting way to realistically appraise skills. The appraisal is experienced by the students, not simply imposed by teachers, and it therefore has more pronounced repercussions than it would otherwise. We have employed this technique as standard practice in our IEP program for the past ten years, with repeated success.

ARRANGING PERMISSION: The preparatory steps are vital and require diplomacy, persistence, and time. Perhaps the first contacts should be made on the administrative level, with the program director contacting the Deans of the colleges whose classes will be visited, usually the Dean of Arts and Sciences and the Dean of Business Administration, but depending on student interests and goals, perhaps the Dean of the Law School, and so forth. The key is to explain the project and purpose and to gain administrative permission for students to observe classes during a designated period. The deans may provide a list of courses suitable for IEP students to observe, but usually it is best to check the semester's schedule of courses and have a selection of courses already made and ready to present to the appropriate dean. This contact does not get IEP students into the college classrooms, but it is politic, follows the university chain of command, and paves the way for winning the permission of faculty whose classes will be visited. Upper-level permission assures that there will be no unpleasant surprises down the line.

The next step is for the IEP program director to write each professor whose classes students hope to visit, copying the letter to the professor's chair, explaining the project and purpose, noting that the project has the blessing of the administration, and asking permission to send student observers. This letter should probably include assurances that the visitors will be unobtrusive, sitting in the back of the classroom if possible, will not participate in discussion nor disrupt the class in any way, and will be carefully instructed in proper classroom etiquette before they make their appearance. Of course, if the IEP faculty have friends among the university professors they might be able to make such arrangements informally. Whether the approach is made formally or informally, it is important to settle on several days when classes might be visited and when no exam or in-class writing assignment is scheduled. It is also important to settle on how many students might attend, perhaps a different pair each class day for a week. The number that can attend without disruption will naturally depend on the size and nature of the class, and the professor's decision about this should be accepted without dispute. The key is not to push IEP students on the unwary, but to set up lines of communication between regular faculty and the IEP. That way permission for future visits can be more easily arranged, and IEP instructors might be able to get advanced information about what will go on in the classes students visit.

Once permission has been granted, students should be given written instructions which include the name of the professor whose class they will attend, the course title, the specific time, date, and location of the class, and guidelines for attendance. They should be encouraged to find the classroom before they are scheduled to attend a class there, and a map or a guide should be provided if there is any confusion.

PREPARING STUDENTS: Preparation can take

—continued page 5

Designing and Implementing IEP Teaching Guides

Elizabeth Byleen, Margaret Coffey, Susan Russell
University of Kansas

This article is a follow-up to a Chicago TESOL Convention presentation on the same topic.

Our IEP, the Applied English Center, needed a means to review, revise, and discard components of our curriculum and move forward with clearer vision. We found writing in-house teaching guides to be an effective answer. It was a long process, but working together was an exercise in team and consensus-building as we solidified goals, priorities, and components of the skills we teach. At the same time, we were able to provide valuable written information for the graduate teaching assistants in our program.

We began this process when few of our courses had faculty coordinators to oversee the materials and teachers. As a result, many GTA's taught with very limited supervision, and there was no systematic way to incorporate their insights and supplementary materials into our courses. The coordinators we did have worked fairly autonomously, so we did not have a clear sense of the logical progression from level to level. In addition, the parameters of our courses were often determined by the textbooks, and not by the faculty's sense of curriculum. Basically, we were so busy that we hadn't stepped back to assess all the various components of our program and build them into a unified whole.

With the hiring of additional coordinators, more of our courses began to take shape, and preliminary work began in reporting what we were doing at each of our five levels of instruction. This soon led us to working together to write our guides to teaching reading, speaking/understanding, and writing within our program.

In writing the teaching guides, one or two primary authors, in collaboration with other faculty members, answered the question "What do teachers of this skill need to know in our program?" The guides have a teacher-training focus, a user-friendly format, and a collegial tone, and have been met with acceptance by our teaching staff. Although each guide varies in style and length (40-130 pages), they include some common features:

- an overview of the skill and very basic theoretical background
- a description of texts, materials and students' abilities at each level of instruction
- priorities, major components, and suggestions for specific activities and practices
- expectations for working with other teachers and coordinators.

The completed guides have been in use for roughly five years, and we find that they offer tremendous benefits to both individual teachers and the IEP as a whole. Teachers now enjoy access to a more comprehensive overview of skill areas within the IEP, and, as a result, are better informed, trained, and ultimately, more independent. Faculty coordinators use the guides for more effective and efficient teacher training, and to establish common ground for discussion at team meetings. With the guides in place, the IEP is better able to maintain consistency in the classroom from year to year, text to text, and teacher to teacher. Finally, the guides exist as a formal document, an established curriculum that the IEP can build on when considering changes in texts, courses, and overall curriculum.

Based on our experiences, we have a few tips to leave with you when planning, drafting, and revising similar guides. During the planning phase, it helps to get a clear focus of the project:

- *Prioritize Goals:* If you cannot get started immediately, collect memos, handouts, lessons, and activities to avoid duplicating efforts each semester. If you cannot create a whole document yet, prioritize goals. One starting place is the questions teachers raise every semester. Another consideration is your staff's composition. High priority topics for inexperienced teachers will probably differ from those for established faculty.

- *Set Parameters:* Our program created several skill-based guides. If your curriculum is content-based, it may make more sense to have one guide or level-based guides.

- *Set Manageable Goals:* The process will probably take longer than first anticipated. Do you plan to train teachers or just inform them of course and skill parameters? A "training" guide will probably require more time and energy to create.

When drafting and revising, be sure to include others in the process:

- *Get Feedback:* Ask for critical comments from various sources such as the director, teachers, and coordinators. Professional administrative staff with no vested interest in the project can offer objective observations on tone, audience, and clarity.

- *Build Consensus:* Who decides when the guides are finished? While few people may be involved in the guides' creation, they belong to everyone in the program. Therefore, it is better to build consensus among faculty and administration throughout the process.

- *Prepare for Revisions:* Because revision is a fact of life, have some editing guidelines in place. Who will be responsible for updating the guides? Who decides which changes are included? We recommend making revisions from the bottom up. Address first those issues raised by teaching and administrative staff.

While creating the guides took quite a bit of time and energy, our program believes that the investment was well worth it. If you have questions about designing or implementing a project like this, feel free to contact us at the following address.

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—Heller & Macdonald, continued from page 3

a number of forms with very different emphases. Perhaps the most important initially is instruction in classroom manners, with particular emphasis on arriving five minutes early, never entering late and never leaving early, maintaining silence in the classroom, and using proper forms of address for thanking the professor. The exercise in Andrew and Gina Macdonalds' *Mastering Writing Essentials* (Prentice Hall Regents) on "Classroom Politeness" works well for this purpose. There should also be some in-class practice with note-taking and summarizing, like the exercises in Richard Yorkey's *Study Skills* (McGraw Hill). A discussion of student expectations before the college class visitation might also prove valuable.

OBSERVATION REPORT: To assure that students make the most of their experience, it is best to set up some type of written observation report for each class visited, followed by an oral report to the IEP class on the experience and by a group discussion of what went well and what created problems. A questionnaire to be filled out after the visitation provides a basis for both a report and discussion. The questionnaire might elicit information on.

- topic of discussion
- number of students present and their in-class behavior
- professor's methods of teaching (both style and teaching aids)
- classroom activities
- type of student-teacher interaction observed
- similarities to classes in home country
- differences in classes from home country
- expectations fulfilled
- surprises

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Gareis and Heiges, on Predictable Problems of Chinese Students in the ESL Classroom

difficulty are regular past tense verbs (ending in <-ed>) and plurals, possessives, and verbs in the third person singular (all ending in <-s>). "She studied" may thus sound like "she study" and "bees" like "bee." The problem is further exacerbated by the fact that in Chinese, verbs are not conjugated to reflect time relations and plurality is rarely expressed.

Grammar

In addition to differences in verb patterns and plurality, Chinese has no articles. This results in frequent omission of articles in English and sentences like "Let's make fire." Likewise, no gender distinction is made in spoken pronouns. In Chinese, "he," "she," and "it" share the same sound, leading to confusing statements in English such as "She is my brother." Finally, parts of speech are not always formally distinguished in Chinese, making the distinction also difficult for English learners and ensuing in such often-heard assertions as "You are so kindness."

Writing

Because of cultural differences in cognitive styles, Chinese students writing (or speaking) English will face some predictable difficulties. Kaplan (1966) drew diagrams to describe the rhetorical style of different languages. He represented American style as a straight line and Asian style as a circle. The American straight line reflects an expectation of explicitness, unity, coherence, and specificity. The American style of academic composition, for example, is "tell them what you are going to say, say it, then tell them what you said" — so that the writer's main idea is clear throughout the paper. The Chinese writer, on the other hand, expects the reader to infer the main idea, so he or she may not see a need to state it explicitly. In fact, a specific thesis statement may feel like an insult to the reader's intelligence. Thus, American writers attempt to create unity and coherence by sticking to a single topic, whereas Chinese writers are expected to give as much information as they can to demonstrate their knowledge and expertise. For this reason, Chinese students may seem to write around a topic rather than addressing it directly. Kaplan described this as "turning in the widening gyre."

The American concept of specificity seems to be especially foreign to Chinese learners. One American teacher asked for a specific example of a lucky person, and she received a composition of generalizations such as "A thrifty person can have good luck, but a spendthrift is unlucky because he will lose his money." In Chinese thinking, a single instance is too particular to be true, so specific examples are not good support for an argument.

Another cultural difference between Chinese and American writers is that Chinese writers do not share the American taboo against plagiarism. Unlike Americans, Chinese do not consider words or ideas as private possessions. Chinese students can assemble school reports by copying material from other sources. Copying the words of authorities shows respect and gives weight to arguments.

Culture

In strong contrast to U.S. American culture, Chinese culture values the group over the individual, places a high value on harmony, and is permeated by a strong sense of obligation and hierarchy. Direct conflict, for example, is avoided— even in the form of a seemingly inconspicuous "no" in response to a question or request. Instead, mediation and gentle indirectness are preferred so that nobody gets embarrassed and loses face. Consider, for instance, the following conversation between an American manager and a Chinese employee (Storti, 1994), p. 52):

Mr. Jones: *It looks like we're going to have to keep the production line running on Saturday.*
Mr. Wu: *I see.*
Mr. Jones: *Can you come in on Saturday?*
Mr. Wu: *Yes, Saturday's a special day, did you know?*
Mr. Jones: *How do you mean?*
Mr. Wu: *It's my son's birthday.*
Mr. Jones: *How nice. I hope you all enjoy it very much.*
Mr. Wu: *Thank you. I appreciate it.*

Mr. Wu, who has made other plans for Saturday, is put in the impossible position of either saying "no" to a superior, which is disrespectful, or saying "yes," which is untruthful and leads to the above misunderstanding. To avoid the dilemma, Mr. Jones should have understood Mr. Wu's "I see" as an indication of unavailability and not pursued the matter further. An alternative would have been to circumnavigate the direct interaction entirely and make a general announcement or post a sign-up sheet for all employees instead.

Related to conflict management styles, Chinese also try to determine one another's age in first encounters. Age plays an important role in establishing a hierarchy of seniority and respect for future encounters. Unlike Americans, Chinese do not consider asking someone's age to be an impolite question, because age does not have the negative value in Chinese culture that it does in the U.S.

Finally, there are a few specific behaviors and superstitions which frequently cause cultural faux pas. Teachers may want to keep them in mind when interacting with Chinese students.

1) The number four is bad luck because its pronunciation is the same as the word for death.
2) Students expect teachers (or persons of greater age and status) to pick up the tab in restaurants.
3) Clocks are not appropriate gifts since they are associated with death.
4) When invited to a Chinese wedding, women should wear bright colors, not white or black.
5) Green hats signify that the wearer has a cheating wife.

Conclusion

Chinese students are among the most industrious and respectful in learning situations. Education is highly valued in Chinese culture, and teachers are usually admired and regarded as authorities. Thus, Chinese students will rarely voice opinions or assert themselves as directly as students from some other cultures. To be effective teachers, it is therefore especially important for ESL teachers to become familiar with the linguistic and cultural characteristics of their Chinese clientele. The above-mentioned traits may serve as a starting kit for this purpose.

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—Heller & Macdonald, continued from page 5

In addition, students should be asked to submit the notes they took in class and a summary or outline of class content based on their notetaking and memory. They should be encouraged to complete their notes as soon as the class they attend is over and while the experience is clear in their minds.

FOLLOW-UP: After classes have been visited and reports made, at least one class period should be spent writing thank-you letters to the professors who so graciously opened their classrooms to the IEP student visitors. These should come from the students, accompanied by a more formal thank-you from the IEP instructors involved in the project, and later a more formal general thanks from the director to the university professors involved in this project. The best student paper on this learning experience might be submitted to the campus newspaper for general publication.

Since class observation can be repeated with new students each semester, student responses and reports should guide future decisons about classes to recommend for visitation. IEP administrators and teachers will soon develop a sense of which professors will truly welcome international

—continued on page 11

CLASSROOM EXERCISES FOR TEACHING PREPOSITIONS

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Beginning students benefit from learning to use prepositions as soon as possible. The following five exercises are effective ways to teach prepositions to adult beginners. They reflect a variety of methodologies and are presented from easiest to most complex.

1. The easiest exercise for beginners should be used during one of the first days of class to teach vocabulary and a few prepositions. The vocabulary words for the items in the classroom are printed by hand on post-it notes, simple words like *desk, chair, door, window, blackboard.* The teacher then says each word, pronouncing it very clearly several times and, at the same time, touching the item the word identifies. A student who repeats the word or shows interest by listening attentively is given the slip to paste on the item. Afterwards, to the question, "Where's the window?", the students are encouraged to all point at the word/item, and to say "there" or "over there" if they can. If they can't, the teacher and their fellow students can help them try to get the pronunciation and the word right. Leaving the notes posted allows the exercise to be repeated over the first few days. Each day more words and locations may be added, and the post-it notes are a visible sign of the progress being made building vocabulary. With time the students can progress to quizzing each other about the location of items, and may even become brave enough to ask questions with more challenging vocabulary: "Where is the teacher?" "Where is the international office?"

2. The first few days are a good time to introduce prepositions. Key prepositions can be written on pieces of paper, and given to students standing in a semi-circle. Students must demonstrate the preposition on their paper when they hear the teacher read it off. When the teacher says "on the left," the student holding that slip waves the word in his left hand. Prepositions can be shuffled among the students and the exercise repeated several times. Later, reviewing can be turned into a game with the students placing their pencils wherever the teacher dictates, in a form of "Simon says". "Put your pencil in front of your neighbor's nose" is always a popular way to break the ice.

3. After the initial classroom words have been learned and the post-it notes with vocabulary words have come down and the class work on question making has progressed, a version of 20 questions can enliven class as well as test and refine both skills in asking questions and using prepositions. The exercise begins with students hiding a pencil from a classmate who waits outside the classroom. When s/he returns, s/he must find the pencil by asking questions such as "Is it in front of me?", "Is it behind me?", "Is it on my right?", "Is it on my left?", "Is it above the backboard?" The classmates can only answer "yes" or "no." If the vocabulary for parts of the body have been studied, questions such as "Is it below my waist?" can also be added. This exercise can be used in a class whose students have a wide range of abilities, since the less able student can repeat the same question, "Is it on my left?", and move about the room, while the more proficient student can ask complex questions while standing in one spot.

4. Combining prepositions with imperatives also works well. First, review the vocabulary for table place settings, and write the key terms on the board. Then, divide students into pairs. One acts as the teacher, instructing the other what to do. The set is a table; the goal a table setting, with knife, fork, spoon, plate, glass, napkin, and so forth properly arranged. No action may be taken without a command. The student instructor gives orders, for example, telling the other, "put the fork on the left of the plate, on top of the napkin." If students are confused about what to do, the teacher might enact some sample commands such as "Put the cup in the middle of the desk," or "Put the plate under the cup." Once the table has been set, roles can then be reversed. Imaginative students produce some

interesting configurations, both in complex sentence formation and in table setting styles. These can lead to interesting discussions, for example, of the difficulties involved in following the directions, "Put the knife in the cup under the napkin."

5. Finally, students of all ages enjoy an old-fashioned treasure hunt. Pairs of students are sent throughout the building at staggered intervals. Each pair begins with a rhyming verse of instructions on where to find the next clue leading to a surprise, for example, "Go to the green room, look behind the door, read the next clue, and you'll learn more!" Such clues present the students with interesting and fun language instructions. Since this exercise is difficult, the teacher often needs to be stationed along the way to help students understand the messages. The final prize can vary: Easter eggs, Halloween candy, Christmas treats, or whatever is appropriate to the season or to the topic the class is currently studying.

TESOL™

TESOL Quarterly Call for Abstracts

Research and Practice in English Language Teacher Education

The *TESOL Quarterly* announces a special-topic issue on Research and Practice in English Language Teacher Education to appear in 1998. The issue will feature research articles, grounded descriptions of best practices, and analytical commentaries that address current research and practice in English language teacher education. We are seeking contributions from English language teacher education contexts and geographical regions around the world. We encourage submissions in the following categories:

1. **Research in ESOL Teacher Education**
   Qualitative and quantitative research on (a) teacher learning and professional development; (b) the role of teacher preparation programs (both pre- and in-service) in (a) above; and (c) the development of teachers' knowledge and beliefs in relation to their classroom practices.
2. **Accounts of Best Practices**
   Grounded descriptions of pioneering teacher education programs or sustained activities that target (a) the creation of professional communities through pre-service and in-service interventions; (b) the processes of teacher socialization in classrooms, schools, and the wider professional community; and (c) the development of teachers as researchers and curriculum developers.
3. **Conceptual Analyses**
   Analytical commentaries that address (a) the knowledge-base of English language teacher education; (b) systemic issues of teacher change and learning in schools; (c) the complex developmental processes of teacher learning; and (d) the assessment of teachers in both pre- and in-service contexts.

We are also seeking reviews and short notices of current books and materials used in English language teacher education programs. Brief Reports and Summaries on research projects and programs that reflect the submission categories above are also welcome.

At present, we are soliciting three- to five-page abstracts for submission categories 1-3 above. Please send three copies of the abstract (double-spaced) with the category of submission clearly indicated (Research, Best Practices, Conceptual Analyses) accompanied by a biographical statement (maximum 50 words), a full mailing address, daytime/evening fax and telephone numbers, and e-mail (if available). Abstracts should be mailed to the address below and should be received no later than:

January 15, 1997

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"How does your article grow? From idea to publication"

Stephanie Vandrick,
University of San Francisco

How can we in IEPs share our ideas more widely? How can we "grow" our ideas into published papers? I recommend a recent article addressed to ESL professionals (Holmes & Moulton, 1995) which gives excellent information and advice regarding writing professional articles, submitting them for publication, and understanding the processes followed by journals in our field. Here I supplement that article by focusing on the stages of gathering ideas, keeping notes, writing drafts, and organizing one's writing materials and schedules using computer files: "growing" an article from start to finish. I offer some tips about the writing process, and my system of nuts and bolts procedures that help keep me organized. Many variations are possible.

Tips

1. Don't wait for ideas to come to you; set aside times to think about possibilities. This can be very informal: While you are taking a walk or doing laundry, actively, yet relaxedly, open your mind to possible topics.

2. Believe in your ideas; don't censor them in advance. Jot ideas down, and wait to see what happens.

3. Believe that if you pursue an idea, you will discover what you want to say. You don't have to know ahead of time.

4. Trust your instinct when a given idea draws you; your attraction to the idea will be the force that keeps you writing.

5. Don't put off writing. If you wait until you "have time," you will never get to it. Make writing a priority and set aside time for it, even if it means leaving a pile of papers, or an untidy room, for a few hours or even days.

6. If you are intimidated by the whole process, start with small steps. For example, write a short description of a classroom practice that works well for you, or write a short book review. Submit it to your professional organization's local affiliate newsletter or interest section newsletter.

7. Get support. Share your ideas and drafts with trusted colleagues or friends; even better, meet regularly with those colleagues to discuss writing. Knowing you will meet causes you to focus more on writing. You get valuable feedback at all stages of the writing, and you get encouragement, support, and the generation of more ideas.

My "system"

1. On my hard disk, I have a folder labeled "Papers," within which I have folders labeled "Ideas," "Papers in Progress," "Papers Submitted," "Papers Accepted," "Papers Rejected," and "Papers Published."

2. I start a new document for each idea I have for an article or review, no matter how vague or farfetched. The document might initially include only the date and a sentence or two about the idea.

3. I immediately put the document into my "Ideas" folder. Whenever I think of a way to develop the idea, I open the document and add a sentence or two, or more. I start a "sources" list at the bottom of the document. A document may stay at this stage for weeks or months or years.

4. When an idea document has quite a few notes, and I feel that a kind of critical mass has been reached, I move it from the "Ideas" folder to the "Papers in Progress" folder, sometimes make a rough outline, and then start a draft.

5. I continue to read as much as I can about the article's topic, talk to my writing colleagues about it, think about it on my walks, write myself more notes, enter ideas and sources, and add to the rough draft. I start a "References" list at the bottom of the document.

6. When I have completed a draft, I ask my colleagues for feedback. I carry a printed copy with me and constantly "play" with it, adding, subtracting, changing. The next time I get to my computer, I enter those changes. I use headers so that each draft printed out will be dated; after some printings I also pencil in notations at the top of the page, such as "given to colleague X in this form for comments," "check X article in Y journal," or "rework conclusion?"

7. When I send the article out, I create a folder for that article, and put the document in the folder, along with any related documents, such as cover letters, abstracts, and bios. That new folder is moved to the "Papers Submitted" folder.

8. When I hear from the journal, I put the folder into the "Papers Accepted" or "Papers Rejected" folder, as the case may be. If it is in the latter, I usually leave it for a while, then think about the comments, and start tinkering with the paper again, for possible resubmission.

9. When the final revisions and/or proofs have been sent off, and when the paper is actually published, I move its folder to the "Papers Published" section.

10. Throughout this process, I frequently back up documents (from the hard disk to separate disks) and print hard copies. I also keep a manila folder for all documents relating to each paper: the first and the most recent printout of the document, copies of correspondence, copies of related articles, etc. In addition, I keep a recent printout of the document in a separate location (e.g., home, as opposed to office).

11. In 2-10 above, I describe the general process for a given paper. In addition, I frequently open up documents from the "Ideas" folder and from the "Papers in Progress" folder, read them over, add a little, revise a little. I think of this periodic "checking in" process as "tending" the various ideas, like checking and watering the plants in a garden.

12. Two other documents in my "Writing" folder help keep me organized and focused. First, "Current Projects" is a list of what I am working on and at what stage each project is. It includes reminders to myself, thoughts on journals for which the article might be suitable, comments from my colleagues to consider, deadlines, and so on. I consult this list two or three times a week; I also frequently print it out and put it in my handbag so that I may consult it away from my computer. Second, "Article Calendar" tracks the progress of submissions, including date submitted, journal to which it was submitted, date of acknowledgment, and other particulars.

I hope that some of these tips, and some aspects of my "system," will be of assistance to others who have started writing recently, or who would like to do so.

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—Heller and Macdonald, continued from page 7

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students without making a fuss about it, which academic fields and departments have the most internationally-oriented programs, and which classes offer the right blend of accessibility and challenge to new speakers of English. This last point is crucial, since the goal is to encourage, not horrify about the level of difficulty, while also providing an object lesson in the realities of what is still to be mastered. In our experience, professors vary widely in their understandability by international students; jargon, slang, regional accent, rapidity of speech, poor articulation, and the use of nonmainstream language can all cause severe problems for the IEP student. We have even seen the phenomenon of well-intentioned professors attempting to communicate to clearly befuddled international students as they would to similarly uncomprehending native speakers, by resorting to sports metaphors, student slang, and other language totally impenetrable for students from abroad. The more experience both students and IEP teachers have with such academic variables, the better they can prepare for them in the IEP classroom.

CONCLUSION: One valuable side effect of this teaching strategy is that it makes the Intensive English Program more visible on campus. Since it involves interaction between IEP instructors and university professors in a variety of departments, it promotes a wider understanding of what the program involves and how effective it is in raising the level of international student performance in the university classroom.

For valuable suggestions that carry this concept in a slightly different direction, see Martha Iancu in "Class Observation Week" from "Tips for the Classroom" in the Winter 1993/4 issue of the *TESOL Journal.*

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